

THE READER

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 39, Vol. II.

Saturday, September 26, 1863.

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PARIS.—AGENT FOR THE "READER."
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GERMANY.—Mr. F. A. BROCKHAUS,
Leipzig, having been appointed Agent for Leipzig and Northern Germany, it is requested that intending Subscribers will send their names to him. Books for Review may also be forwarded to him for enclosure in his Weekly Parcel.

NORTH OF EUROPE.—Messrs. ONCKEN,
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INDIA: MADRAS.—Messrs. GANTZ,
Brothers, 21, Rundell's Road, Vepery, Madras, will register names of Subscribers on account of the "Reader." Annual subscription, including postage, 13 rupees.

LIVERPOOL and LONDON
FIRE AND LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

At the ANNUAL MEETING of the Proprietors in this Company, held on Thursday, 25th of February, 1863,
JAMES ASPINALL TOBIN, Esq., in the Chair,

The Report of the Directors for the Year 1862 was read; it showed:—

That the Fire Premiums of the Year were	£436,965	0	0
Against those in 1861, which were	390,131	0	0
Giving an increase in 1862 of	£46,834	0	0
That the new Life business comprised the issue of 785 Policies, insuring	407,334	0	0
On which the annual premium is	13,955	7	11
That 69 new Annuity Bonds have been granted, securing annual payments of	39,446	17	11
And that the aggregate of the annuities now payable is	23,684	1	3
That there has been added to the Life Reserve the sum of	79,277	11	4
That the balance of Undivided Profit was increased by the sum of	25,725	9	7
That the Invested Funds of the Company amounted to	1,417,808	8	4

In reference to the very large increase of £76,000 in the Fire premiums of the year, it was remarked in the Report, "The Premiums paid to a company are the measure of that company's business of all kinds, and whence derived; the Directors therefore prefer that test of progress to any the duty collected may afford, as that applies to only a part of a company's business, and a large share of that part may be, and often is, re-insured with other offices. In this view the yearly addition to the Fire premiums of the Liverpool and London Company must be very gratifying to the proprietors."

SWINTON BOULT, Secretary to the Company.
JOHN ATKINS, Resident Secretary, London.

NORWICH UNION FIRE INSURANCE SOCIETY.

NOTICE.—MICHAELMAS RENEWALS.

The Business of the Company exceeds £70,000,000.
The Duty paid to Government for the year 1862 was £85,062, and the amount insured on farming stock, £10,080,332.
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BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

OUR REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS
OF THE MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE, several of the more important Papers being given *in extenso*, under supervision of the writers themselves, will be continued from week to week in

"THE READER."

MINERALOGY.—KING'S COLLEGE.

LONDON.—Professor TENNANT, F.G.S., will commence a Course of Lectures on MINERALOGY, with a view to facilitate the study of GEOLOGY and of the application of MINERAL SUBSTANCES in the ARTS. The Lectures will begin on Friday morning, October 2nd, at Nine o'clock. They will be continued on each succeeding Wednesday and Friday at the same hour. Fee, £2. 2s. R. W. JELF, D.D., Principal.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Dr. Waitz's "ANTHROPOLOGIE der NATURVÖLKER" will be ready for delivery to the Fellows in a few weeks. All gentlemen joining at the present time will receive the whole of the publications for the year. There are a few vacancies on the list of Foundation Members. A Prospectus and further particulars will be forwarded on application to

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SOCIAL SCIENCE.—THE SEVENTH

ANNUAL MEETING of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION for the PROMOTION of SOCIAL SCIENCE will be held in Edinburgh from the 7th to the 14th of OCTOBER next. President The Right Hon. Lord BROUGHAM. Members' Subscription, ONE GUINEA, entitling to the Volume of *Transactions*. Associates, 10s. Either Subscription admits to all the Meetings and *soirees*. Ladies may be enrolled as Members or Associates. Subscriptions are received at the Offices in Edinburgh and London, where Programmes of the Railway and General arrangements, and every information relating to the Meeting, may be obtained. Offices, City Chambers, Edinburgh; and 3, Waterloo Place, Pall Mall, London, S.W.

GEORGE W. HASTINGS,
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By Order of the Lords of the Committee of Council on Education.

SCIENCE and ART DEPARTMENT of the

COMMITTEE of COUNCIL on EDUCATION, South Kensington.—The new ART TRAINING SCHOOLS of the Science and Art Department of the Committee of Council on Education will be OPENED for Public Inspection on FRIDAY and SATURDAY, 2nd and 3rd October, from Twelve till Nine p.m. The Classes assemble on Monday, 5th October.

By order of the Committee of Council on Education.

CRYPT GRAMMAR SCHOOL,

GLOUCESTER.—THE TRUSTEES give notice that they are about to ELECT a HEAD MASTER, who will be required to enter upon the duties of his office as early as may be in the month of November next. The salary will be £200 per annum, the further yearly sum of £2 for every scholar up to the number of 100, and £1 a year for every scholar above that number. There were 108 boys in the school at Midsummer last. The house provided for the Head Master is roomy and convenient, with a good garden, and will be occupied by him free of rent and taxes. There is an exhibition from this school to Pembroke College, Oxford. The Head Master will not be allowed, during his tenure of office, to hold or exercise any other cure or employment, ecclesiastical or civil. Applications, stating age, &c., with Testimonials, sealed and pre-paid, to be sent, on or before the 29th September next, to Mr. WASHBURN, Solicitor, Gloucester. Clerk to the Trustees, from whom further particulars may be obtained.

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PUBLIC SCHOOLS' CLUB.—

A GENERAL MEETING of the ORIGINAL MEMBERS of the Club will be held on the 5th OCTOBER, at 5 o'clock, p.m., for the Election of a Committee and Admission of New Candidates.

W. A. SWIFT.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS' CLUB.—The List of

ORIGINAL MEMBERS being complete, the Club will be OPENED on MONDAY, the 28th instant. Future Candidates may obtain Forms of Application by applying to the Secretary, 17, St. James's Place, St. James's, S.W.

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SATURDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1863.

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CARDINAL WISEMAN ON SELF-CULTURE.

THE newspapers have done right in praising Cardinal Wiseman's Lecture on Self-Culture, delivered last week at the Hartley Institution in Southampton. One does not always like the Cardinal's essays, whether spoken or written. They have, many of them, a sleek, flabby, veal-like texture, both of thought and of expression. It is partly from the recollection of such discourses of the Cardinal, partly from a general conviction that the Cardinal's mode of thought must, from the inevitable circumstances of his training and position, be a mode of thought utterly incapable of any wholesome effect upon the national British mind, that one is apt to take up any new discourse of his with a predetermination against it. But one ought not to let prejudice have its way, even against a cardinal; and we must say that there were parts of Cardinal Wiseman's recent lecture which were really ingenious and good. It is not so much those parts of the lecture which were generally praised by the newspapers that have caught our fancy as a certain train of abstract disquisition upon which the Cardinal entered near the beginning of the lecture, and the application of which occupied the rest of it. The Cardinal, indeed, treated his Southampton audience to a neat little bit of Psychology; and newspapers cannot be expected to look after the bits of Psychology that may occur in the lectures which they report. Indeed, they are seldom troubled with them. There have been a few capital vacation-speeches within the last week or two by various public men—Earl Russell, Lord Stanley, Mr. Grant Duff, and others; and, all in all, perhaps the best vacation-speech of the season—that with most of real thought and perception of the future in it—has been Mr. Grant Duff's; but the Cardinal alone, so far as we have observed, made his speech to consist in a connected exposition, taken from what University-men call the Philosophy of the Human Mind. The substance of what he said is worth reproducing.

The lecture being on Self-Culture or Self-Education, the Cardinal first explained that

he was not to concern himself with that kind of Self-Education which consists in the acquisition of knowledge, nor with that kind which consists in morality, but chiefly with that important kind which consists in the control of the intellect by and within itself. Now the mind, or intellectual part of man, said the Cardinal (herein following Bacon and the time-honoured Psychology), may be viewed as made up of the three faculties of Memory, Imagination, and Judgment or Thought proper. On Memory and Imagination he was to say but a few words; and what he would say about them would be, to a great extent, involved in what he had to say about the control of Thought proper. To this, then, he would devote the body of his discourse. That Thought proper, the activity of the mind on the objects presented to it, requires to be controlled, and that the really important part of education consists in the acquisition of this power of control over Thought proper—this was the notion pervading the Cardinal's lecture. He spun a better discourse, one more stimulating intellectually to his audience, out of this little text than if he had blared away for two hours, as lecturers at public institutions usually do, about the progress of science or the greatness of Shakespeare. And here is how it was:—

First, there is for every man what may be called passive, or spontaneous thought—the mere unsolicited succession of ideas that is always flitting through every mind. Without going into metaphysical questions as to the origin and nature of thought, the Cardinal fastened at once on this constant passive succession of ideas in every mind as a known fact, and called attention to it by means of illustration from the sense of sight.

The eye is never satiated, never satisfied with seeing. Whatever the multiplicity of objects, they hold no place, but are continually changing. If we walk into the country alone by a pleasant path, there is not an instant in which we do not see something—the trees, the cottages, the distant mountains. As we move the head and incline it in a different angle, as we move the pupil of the eye, every possible change takes place in our bodily relation to the outward objects presented to the vision; and yet all these objects are connected, and there is not a moment without some picture being presented to the eye. Exactly so with thought. We are never a moment without thinking. Even while reading a book there is a train of thought passing through the mind over which it exercises no control. One thought succeeds another, more linked, more united by the power of association than the objects that meet the eye. That corresponds exactly to the action of the eye. It would be exceedingly difficult to render an account of the thoughts passing through the mind during the day.

This constant flux of ideas or thoughts in the mind of a man is, the Cardinal virtually proceeded to say, the material with which every man has to deal in cultivating himself. All depends on how it is managed. There is the perpetual flow and succession; how is it to be economized? Here the Cardinal again had recourse with good effect to his analogy from the sense of sight:—

A man might pass a whole day, never distinctly distinguishing any object with his eye; but, by exercising a certain degree of mental power, he might stop and examine some object and fix it upon his memory. With respect to the eye, that would be Observation; to the mind, it would be Reflection. When thoughts were passing through a man's mind, he might consider some one of them rather singular, and reflect upon it, and thus arrest the current of thought, and fix upon something distant which would occupy his mind in future years, and lead to something useful and practical.

This, then, is the first "potence," as the Germans would call it, of that self-culture which consists in the control of thought by and within itself—the power of arresting the current of thought, of waking up at one point and another in the passive succession of ideas, and detaining oneself for a purpose at that point. This is conscious Reflection; and the first difference among men, distinguishing the educated from the uneducated, is the attainment of some degree of this power of arresting the flow of spontaneous thought,

whirling it into eddies at one's own will, and otherwise consciously mastering it. But there is a higher difference yet, which the Cardinal proceeded to expound:—

That is the second step. But there is a third, and a higher and more important one. A man might not be satisfied with a passing view of an object, but desire to know something more about it. For instance, in looking for the first time at the ruins at Netley Abbey he saw all that could be seen in passing by. That was Observation. It occurred to his mind that, if ever he passed that way again, he would make an examination into its architecture, and try to make out its history, having previously gathered such information as he might be able to do from books treating on the subject. That would be a very different degree of observation from either of the first, and might be called Contemplation. That would be seeing in the highest sense. Exactly the same thing takes place with regard to the mind. A man may say, "I wish to cultivate my powers of thought. I am not satisfied with dwelling for a few minutes on a thought which invites my attention; here is a great question on which a thoughtful and earnest man cannot remain satisfied in ignorance, and I will study it." For this purpose he would collect the necessary materials and exercise the varied powers of his mind and memory and reasoning, until he came to a solemn and well-matured decision how he ought to think and act. That is the course of thought, the operation of the mind corresponding exactly with the third operation of the sense of sight; and this analogy brings forward all the processes of which thought is capable.

According to the Cardinal, then, there is a third potency of Thought, which is an advance beyond that of Reflection or the simple arrest of Thought, and which may be called Contemplation. This consists not simply in arresting the spontaneous succession of thoughts for a momentary purpose at this point or that, but, if we understand the Cardinal, in remaining at certain points in permanent gaze, in saying to oneself "Here I will build, here I will make my dwelling," in walking round and round the spot till it is thoroughly known, in circumvallating it, in bringing materials from all distances into it, in systematizing within its bounds as large an aggregate of the total possessions of the mind as one can. This, according to the Cardinal, is the highest process of which the intellect is capable; and a mind that in any degree has reached the practice of this power has attained to the third stage of Self-Culture. In the first stage—that of the passive succession of ideas and sensations—one is, as it were, a mental savage, living on the chance food that comes in one's way; in the second stage one has domesticated certain animals, but is still a nomad, ranging from spot to spot; only in the third stage is one a dweller in cities, overroofed by edifices of some sort, whether they be huts or palaces.

Such was the expository portion of Cardinal Wiseman's lecture. The rest consisted in the application; and we must say that, though it is the application that the newspapers have fastened on, we do not like it so much as the purely expository portion. It seems to us both more confused and less unexceptionable on the ground of correctness. What it was in the main may easily be inferred. It was an advice to all hearing him to remember the three potences of thought as above explained, and to push on, at all events, out of the lowest into the second, and, if possible, out of the second into the third. All this was very good; but special notions were mixed up with the advice which do not seem to us essentially to belong to it, and even seem to be objectionable. The Cardinal warned his hearers against mere *reverie*, as being a kind of relapse into the first stage of mind; and here we might agree with him, with certain conditions and reserves. But, when he went on to warn them against "fixed ideas"—against allowing any thought to become recurrent or dominant—and conjured them, the moment they found an idea or fancy becoming a favourite with them, ruthlessly to cast it out, we cannot see how he could reconcile this with his doctrine of reflection and contemplation, and, on other grounds, unless his

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meaning is misexpressed, we part company with him. But how does it happen that the very portion of Cardinal Wiseman's lecture which the *Times* singled out for special approbation was this warning against fixed or recurring ideas? Had this doctrine of the propriety of never letting the thought of Monday follow you into Tuesday any special recommendations for the *Times*?

CURRENT LITERATURE.

NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE ON ENGLAND AND THE ENGLISH.

Our Old Home. By Nathaniel Hawthorne, Author of "Transformation," "The Scarlet Letter," &c. In Two Volumes. (Smith, Elder, & Co.)

UNDER the title of "Our Old Home" Mr. Hawthorne has here published, both for his American fellow-countrymen and for ourselves, two volumes of descriptive sketches of England and the English, compiled from notes made in his journals during the years he recently spent among us in his capacity as Consul for the United States in Liverpool. The title of the book is significant. The Americans, one and all, still think of England as their Old Home. "After all these bloody wars and vindictive animosities," says Mr. Hawthorne, "we have still an unspeakable yearning towards England. When our forefathers left the old home, they pulled up many of their roots, but trailed along with them others, which were never snapt asunder by the tug of such a lengthening distance, nor have been torn out of the original soil by the violence of subsequent struggles, nor severed by the edge of the sword. Even so late as these days, they remain entangled with our heart-strings, and might often have influenced our national course like the tiller-ropes of a ship, if the rough gripe of England had been capable of managing so sensitive a kind of machinery." It must be plain to all who have read Mr. Hawthorne's previous books that there is no American in whose genius these fibres of lingering connexion with the old country are more firmly knitted than in his; and if, on the one hand, no American could have been more welcome in England in the representative capacity in which he was sent hither, it is probable, on the other hand, that America could have sent no one more thoroughly fitted to walk with meditative enjoyment over our English acres, note their picturesque features, and lovingly exhaust their antique lore. Perhaps there is no American from whom a book about England would be expected with more affectionate interest and with higher anticipations of pleasure than from Nathaniel Hawthorne. He is a favourite with us all. Whatever faults we have to find with other American writers, we all think him charming. In his writings we find none of the grotesque braggartism of thought, word, and metaphor, none of the Mississippi-bred eloquence, which disgusts us so often in the writings and speeches of some even of his most celebrated countrymen, but, along with a genuine and original power of intellect and of fancy, all the grace, delicacy, and subtle ease and proportionateness of expression to which we have been accustomed by our best native writers. We should take to him as readily, and with as little fear of offence to our literary taste, as to De Quincey or Leigh Hunt or Thackeray, or any other of our most silver-tongued English authors, and yet with the certainty that it would not be De Quincey or Leigh Hunt or Thackeray that we should be reading, but precisely the American Hawthorne.

Well, the present is a beautiful book, and worthy of Hawthorne. If you want to see how a real artist and man of genius can describe his tours and register his impressions of people and scenery, as compared with a traveller of the Koch species "doing" a country systematically for the purposes of a

book, you can find no better specimen of the superior method than in these volumes. Mr. Hawthorne, indeed, does not, in any sense, "do" England in their pages. He does not divide England, or Great Britain, as in the maps of the guide-books for tourists, into squares and districts, and devote a chapter to each district or square until the whole is surveyed. It does not appear that he travelled over our country in that manner while he was here on his long visit. In these volumes, at least, it is but a few spots of the British territory that he touches with his reminiscences; and, were his journeys over that territory during the period of his consulship to be indicated on a map from these volumes alone, the line would be a very interrupted one, and would cross but a portion here and there of the total surface. Liverpool, as the seat of his consulate, was his head-quarters; and the first chapter is about Liverpool, or rather about his consulate there, and the queer sorts of business which it devolved upon him. It appears, however, that, in vacation-times, he used to reside a good deal in Leamington; and a large portion of the book is taken up with excursions in the neighbourhood of Leamington—more particularly to Warwick and Stratford-on-Avon. We follow him, also, to Oxford and its environs. Then there are leaps away, in one direction, to Lichfield, and, in another, to Lincoln and Boston; and there is, moreover, a rapid excursion into the south-west of Scotland. Ere he left England, he seems to have shifted his quarters for a time to the neighbourhood of Blackheath and Greenwich, and so to have been able to plunge into London when he liked. There are hints in the book of visits to other parts of England than those which have been mentioned, and probably in his journal there are recollections of many spots not named, or merely named in these volumes; but, so far as the volumes are concerned, the above is the outline. Here may seem meagre promise enough; but let any one who thinks the promise meagre read the book, and he will find it rich, beyond most, in quaint fact, in description of scenery, in autobiographic anecdote, in reflection, in humour and in fancy. A few extracts must serve to suggest the variety of this richness:—

A Consular Experience.—A parcel of letters had been accumulating at the Consulate for two or three weeks, directed to a certain Doctor of Divinity, who had left America by a sailing-ship and was still upon the sea. In due time the vessel arrived, and the reverend doctor paid me a visit. He was a fine-looking middle-aged gentleman, a perfect model of clerical propriety, scholar-like, yet with the air of a man of the world rather than a student, though overspread with the graceful sanctity of a popular metropolitan divine, a part of whose duty it might be to exemplify the natural accordance between Christianity and good-breeding. He seemed a little excited, as an American is apt to be on first arriving in England, but conversed with intelligence as well as animation, making himself so agreeable that his visit stood out in considerable relief from the monotony of my daily commonplace. As I learned from authentic sources, he was somewhat distinguished in his own region for fervor and eloquence in the pulpit, but was now compelled to relinquish it temporarily for the purpose of renovating his impaired health by an extensive tour in Europe. Promising to dine with me, he took up his bundle of letters and went away. The doctor, however, failed to make his appearance at dinner-time, or to apologise the next day for his absence; and, in the course of a day or two more, I forgot all about him, concluding that he must have set forth on his continental travels, the plan of which he had sketched out at our interview. But, by-and-by, I received a call from the master of the vessel in which he had arrived. He was in some alarm about his passenger, whose luggage remained on shipboard, but of whom nothing had been heard or seen since the moment of his departure from the Consulate. We conferred together, the captain and I, about the expediency of setting the police on the traces (if any were to be found) of our vanished friend; but it struck me that the good captain was singularly reticent, and that there was something a little mysterious in a few points that he hinted at rather than expressed; so that, scrutinizing the affair carefully,

I surmised that the intimacy of life on shipboard might have taught him more about the reverend gentleman than, for some reason or other, he deemed it prudent to reveal. At home, in our native country, I would have looked to the doctor's personal safety, and left his reputation to take care of itself, knowing that the good fame of a thousand saintly clergymen would amply dazzle out any lamentable spot on a single brother's character. But, in scornful and invidious England, on the idea that the credit of the sacred office was measurably intrusted to my discretion, I could not endure, for the sake of American Doctors of Divinity generally, that this particular doctor should cut an ignoble figure in the police reports of the English newspapers, except at the last necessity. The clerical body, I flatter myself, will acknowledge that I acted on their own principle. Besides, it was now too late; the mischief and violence, if any had been impending, were not of a kind which it requires the better part of a week to perpetrate; and, to sum up the entire matter, I felt certain, from a good deal of somewhat similar experience, that, if the missing Doctor still breathed this vital air, he would turn up at the Consulate as soon as his money should be stolen or spent. Precisely a week after this reverend person's disappearance, there came to my office a tall, middle-aged gentleman in a blue military surt-out, braided at the seams, but out at elbows, and as shabby as if the wearer had been bivouacking in it throughout a Crimean campaign. It was buttoned up to the very chin, except where three or four of the buttons were lost; nor was there any glimpse of a white shirt-collar illuminating the rusty black cravat. A grisly moustache was just beginning to roughen the stranger's upper lip. He looked disreputable to the last degree, but still had a ruined air of good society glimmering about him, like a few specks of polish on a sword-blade that has lain corroding in a mud-puddle. I took him to be some American marine officer, of dissipated habits, or perhaps a cashiered British major, stumbling into the wrong quarters through the unrectified bewilderment of last night's debauch. He greeted me, however, with polite familiarity, as though we had been previously acquainted; whereupon I drew coldly back (as sensible people naturally do, whether from strangers or former friends, when too evidently at odds with fortune), and requested to know who my visitor might be, and what was his business at the Consulate. "Am I then so changed?" he exclaimed, with a vast depth of tragic indignation; and, after a little blind and bewildered talk, behold! the truth flashed upon me, it was the Doctor of Divinity! If I had meditated a scene or a *coup de théâtre*, I could not have contrived a more effectual one than by this simple and genuine difficulty of recognition. The poor Divine must have felt that he had lost his personal identity through the misadventures of one little week. And, to say the truth, he did look as if, like Job, on account of his especial sanctity, he had been delivered over to the direst temptations of Satan, and, proving weaker than the man of Uz, the Arch Enemy had been empowered to drag him through Tophet, transforming him in the process from the most decorous of metropolitan clergymen into the rowdiest and dirtiest of disbanded officers. I never fathomed the mystery of his military costume, but conjectured that a lurking sense of fitness had induced him to exchange his clerical garments for this habit of a sinner; nor can I tell precisely into what pitfall, not more of vice than terrible calamity, he had precipitated himself,—being more than satisfied to know that the outcasts of society can sink no lower than this poor, desecrated wretch had sunk. . . . To conclude this wretched story, the poor Doctor of Divinity, having been robbed of all his money in this little airing beyond the limits of propriety, was easily persuaded to give up the intended tour and return to his bereaved flock, who, very probably, were thereafter conscious of an increased unction in his soul-stirring eloquence, without suspecting the awful depths into which their pastor had dived in quest of it. His voice is now silent. I leave it to members of his own profession to decide whether it was better for him thus to sin outright, and so to be let into the miserable secret what manner of man he was, or to have gone through life outwardly unspotted, making the first discovery of his latent evil at the judgment-seat. It has occurred to me that his dire calamity, as both he and I regarded it, might have been the only method by which precisely such a man as himself, and so situated, could be redeemed. He has learned, ere now, how that matter stood.

Lillington Churchyard, near Leamington.—A well-trodden path led across the churchyard; and, the gate being on the latch, we entered, and walked round among the graves and monuments.

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The latter were chiefly head-stones, none of which were very old, so far as was discoverable by the dates; some, indeed, in so ancient a cemetery, were disagreeably new, with inscriptions glittering like sunshine, in gold letters. The ground must have been dug over and over again innumerable times, until the soil is made up of what was once human clay, out of which have sprung successive crops of gravestones, that flourish their allotted time, and disappear like the weeds and flowers in their briefer period. The English climate is very unfavourable to the endurance of memorials in the open air. Twenty years of it suffice to give as much antiquity of aspect, whether to tombstone or edifice, as a hundred years of our own drier atmosphere — so soon do the drizzly rains and constant moisture corrode the surface of marble or freestone. Sculptured edges lose their sharpness in a year or two; yellow lichens overspread a beloved name, and obliterate it while it is yet fresh upon some survivor's heart. Time gnaws an English gravestone with wonderful appetite; and, when the inscription is quite illegible, the sexton takes the useless slab away, and perhaps makes a hearth-stone of it, and digs up the unripe bones which it ineffectually tried to memorialize, and gives the bed to another sleeper. In the Charter Street burial-ground at Salem, and in the old graveyard on the hill at Ipswich, I have seen more ancient gravestones with legible inscriptions on them than in any English churchyard. And yet this same ungenial climate, hostile as it generally is to the long remembrance of departed people, has sometimes a lovely way of dealing with the records on certain monuments that lie horizontally in the open air. The rain falls into the deep incisions of the letters, and has scarcely time to be dried away before another shower sprinkles the flat stone again, and replenishes those little reservoirs. The unseen, mysterious seeds of mosses find their way into the lettered furrows, and are made to germinate by the continual moisture and watery sunshine of the English sky; and, by-and-by, in a year, or two years, or many years, behold the complete inscription—

HERE LYETH THE BODY,

and all the rest of the tender falsehood—beautifully embossed in raised letters of living green, a bas-relief of velvet moss on the marble slab! It becomes more legible, under the skyey influences, after the world has forgotten the deceased, than when it was fresh from the stone-cutter's hands. It outlives the grief of friends. I first saw an example of this in Bebbington churchyard, in Cheshire, and thought that nature must needs have had a special tenderness for the person (no noted man, however, in the world's history) so long ago laid beneath that stone, since she took such wonderful pains to "keep his memory green." Perhaps the proverbial phrase just quoted may have had its origin in the natural phenomenon here described. While we rested ourselves on a horizontal monument, which was elevated just high enough to be a convenient seat, I observed that one of the gravestones lay very close to the church,—so close that the droppings of the eaves would fall upon it. It seemed as if the inmate of that grave had desired to creep under the church-wall. On closer inspection, we found an almost illegible epitaph on the stone, and with difficulty made out this forlorn verse:—

Poorly lived,
And poorly died,
Poorly buried,
And no one cried.

It would be hard to compress the story of a cold and luckless life, death, and burial into fewer words or more impressive ones; at least, we found them impressive, perhaps because we had to re-create the inscription by scraping away the lichens from the faintly-traced letters. The grave was on the shady and damp side of the church, endwise towards it, the head-stone being within about three feet of the foundation-wall; so that, unless the poor man was a dwarf, he must have been doubled up to fit him into his final resting-place. No wonder that his epitaph murmured against so poor a burial as this! His name, as well as I could make it out, was Treco—John Treco, I think—and he died in 1810, at the age of seventy-four. The gravestone is so overgrown with grass and weeds, so covered with unsightly lichens, and so crumbly with time and foul weather, that it is questionable whether anybody will ever be at the trouble of deciphering it again. But there is a quaint and sad kind of enjoyment in defeating (to such slight degree as my pen may do it) the probabilities of oblivion for poor John Treco, and asking a little sympathy for him, half-a-century after his death, and making him better and more widely known, at least, than any other slumberer in Lillington Churchyard: he having been, as appearances go, the outcast of them all.

Shakespeare's Grave and Bust in Stratford-on-Avon Church.—The poet and his family are in possession of what may be considered the very best burial-places that the church affords. They lie in a row, right across the breadth of the chancel, the foot of each gravestone being close to the elevated floor on which the altar stands. Nearest to the side-wall, beneath Shakespeare's bust, is a slab bearing a Latin inscription addressed to his wife, and covering her remains; then his own slab, with the old anathematizing stanza upon it; then that of Thomas Nash, who married his granddaughter; then that of Dr. Hall, the husband of his daughter Susannah; and, lastly, Susannah's own. Shakespeare's is the commonest-looking slab of all, being just such a flag-stone as Essex Street in Salem used to be paved with, when I was a boy. Moreover, unless my eyes or recollection deceive me, there is a crack across it, as if it had already undergone some such violence as the inscription deprecates. Unlike the other monuments of the family, it bears no name, nor am I acquainted with the grounds or authority on which it is absolutely determined to be Shakespeare's; although, being in a range with those of his wife and children, it might naturally be attributed to him. But, then, why does his wife, who died afterwards, take precedence of him and occupy the place next his bust? And where are the graves of another daughter and a son, who have a better right in the family row than Thomas Nash, his grandson-in-law? Might not one or both of them have been laid under the nameless stone. But it is dangerous trifling with Shakespeare's dust; so I forbear to meddle further with the grave (though the prohibition makes it tempting), and shall let whatever bones be in it rest in peace. Yet I must needs add that the inscription on the bust seems to imply that Shakespeare's grave was directly underneath it. The poet's bust is affixed to the northern wall of the church, the base of it being about a man's height, or rather more, above the floor of the chancel. The features of this piece of sculpture are entirely unlike any portrait of Shakespeare that I have ever seen, and compel me to take down the beautiful, lofty-browed, and noble picture of him which has hitherto hung in my mental portrait-gallery. The bust cannot be said to represent a beautiful face or an eminently noble head; but it clutches firmly hold of one's sense of reality and insists upon your accepting it, if not as Shakespeare the poet, yet as the wealthy burgher of Stratford, the friend of John a' Combe, who lies yonder in the corner. I know not what the phrenologists say to the bust. The forehead is but moderately developed, and retreats somewhat, the upper part of the skull rising pyramidally; the eyes are prominent almost beyond the penthouse of the brow; the upper lip is so long that it must have been almost a deformity, unless the sculptor artistically exaggerated its length, in consideration that, on the pedestal, it must be foreshortened by being looked at from below. On the whole, Shakespeare must have had a singular rather than a prepossessing face; and it is wonderful how, with this bust before its eyes, the world has persisted in maintaining an erroneous notion of his appearance, allowing painters and sculptors to foist their idealized nonsense on us all, instead of the genuine man. For my part, the Shakespeare of my mind's eye is henceforth to be a personage of a ruddy English complexion, with a reasonably capacious brow, intelligent and quickly-observant eyes, a nose curved slightly outward, a long, queer upper-lip, with the mouth a little unclosed beneath it, and cheeks considerably developed in the lower part and beneath the chin. But, when Shakespeare was himself (for nine-tenths of the time, according to all appearances, he was but the burgher of Stratford), he doubtless shone through this dull mask and transfigured it into the face of an angel.

A Diseased Child in a London Workhouse.—In this chamber (which was spacious, containing a large number of beds) there was a clear fire burning on the hearth, as in all the other occupied rooms; and directly in front of the blaze sat a woman holding a baby, which, beyond all reach of comparison, was the most horrible object that ever afflicted my sight. Days afterwards—nay, even now, when I bring it up vividly before my mind's eye—it seemed to lie upon the floor of my heart, polluting my moral being with the sense of something grievously amiss in the entire conditions of humanity. The holiest man could not be otherwise than full of wickedness, the chastest virgin seemed impure, in a world where such a babe was possible. The governor whispered me, apart, that, like nearly all the rest of them, it was the child of unhealthy parents. Ah, yes! there was the mischief. This spectral infant, a hideous mockery of the visible link which Love creates between man and woman,

was born of disease and sin. Diseased Sin was its father, and Sinful Disease its mother, and their offspring lay in the woman's arms like a nursing Pestilence, which, could it live and grow up, would make the world a more accursed abode than ever heretofore. Thank Heaven, it could not live! This baby, if we must give it that sweet name, seemed to be three or four months old, but, being such an unthrifty changeling, might have been considerably older. It was all covered with blotches, and preternaturally dark and discoloured; it was withered away, quite shrunken and fleshless; it breathed only amid pantings and gaspings, and moaned painfully at every gasp. The only comfort in reference to it was the evident impossibility of its surviving to draw many more of those miserable, moaning breaths; and it would have been infinitely less heart-depressing to see it die, right before my eyes, than to depart and carry it alive in my remembrance, still suffering the incalculable torture of its little life. I can by no means express how horrible this infant was, neither ought I to attempt it. And yet I must add one final touch. Young as the poor little creature was, its pain and misery had endowed it with a premature intelligence, insomuch that its eyes seemed to stare at the bystanders out of their sunken sockets knowingly and appealingly, as if summoning us one and all to witness the deadly wrong of its existence. At least, I so interpreted its look, when it positively met and responded to my own awe-stricken gaze, and therefore I lay the case, as far as I am able, before mankind, on whom God has imposed the necessity to suffer in soul and body till this dark and dreadful wrong be righted.

Horrors of Speech-Making at a Civic Dinner.—While I was thus amiably occupied in criticizing my fellow-guests, the mayor had got up to propose another toast; and, listening rather inattentively to the first sentence or two, I soon became sensible of a drift in his worship's remarks that made me glance apprehensively towards Sergeant Wilkins. "Yes," grumbled that gruff personage, shoving a decanter of port towards me, "it is your turn next;" and seeing in my face, I suppose, the consternation of a wholly unpractised orator, he kindly added—"It is nothing. A mere acknowledgement will answer the purpose. The less you say, the better they will like it." That being the case, I suggested that perhaps they would like it best if I said nothing at all. But the sergeant shook his head. Now, on first receiving the mayor's invitation to dinner, it had occurred to me that I might possibly be brought into my present predicament; but I had dismissed the idea from my mind as too disagreeable to be entertained, and, moreover, as so alien from my disposition and character that Fate surely could not keep such a misfortune in store for me. If nothing else prevented, an earthquake or the crack of doom would certainly interfere before I need rise to speak. Yet here was the mayor getting on inexorably—and, indeed, I heartily wished that he might get on and on for ever, and of his wordy wanderings find no end. If the gentle reader, my kindest friend and closest confidant, deigns to desire it, I can impart to him my own experience as a public speaker quite as indifferently as if it concerned another person. Indeed, it does concern another, or a mere spectral phenomenon, for it was not I, in my proper and natural self, that sat there at table or subsequently rose to speak. At the moment, then, if the choice had been offered me whether the mayor should let off a speech at my head or a pistol, I should unhesitatingly have taken the latter alternative. I had really nothing to say, not an idea in my head, nor, which was a great deal worse, any flowing words or embroidered sentences in which to dress out that empty Nothing, and give it a cunning aspect of intelligence, such as might last the poor vacuity the little time it had to live. But time pressed; the mayor brought his remarks, affectionately eulogistic of the United States, and highly complimentary to their distinguished representative at the table, to a close, amid a vast deal of cheering; and the band struck up "Hail Columbia," I believe, though it might have been "Old Hundred," or "God Save the Queen" over again, for anything that I should have known or cared. When the music ceased, there was an intensely disagreeable instant, during which I seemed to rend away and fling off the habit of a lifetime, and rose, still void of ideas, but with preternatural composure, to make a speech. The guests rattled on the table, and cried "Hear!" most vociferously, as if now, at length, in this foolish and idly garrulous world, had come the long-expected moment when one golden word was to be spoken; and in that imminent crisis I caught a glimpse of a little bit of an effusion of international sentiment, which it might, and must, and should do to utter. Well; it was nothing, as the sergeant had

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said. What surprised me most was the sound of my own voice, which I had never before heard at a declamatory pitch, and which impressed me as belonging to some other person, who, and not myself, would be responsible for the speech: a prodigious consolation and encouragement under the circumstances! I went on without the slightest embarrassment, and sat down amid great applause, wholly undeserved by anything that I had spoken, but well won from Englishmen, methought, by the new development of pluck that alone had enabled me to speak at all.

While the reader is going through the varied richness of the book which we have thus tried to exemplify by a few selected extracts (and we may say that we have rarely known a book which it was so difficult to exemplify by apt extracts, on account both of its changing mood and matter, and the tendency of its best passages to lengthen themselves out), he will have been conscious from the first, unless he is unusually good-humoured, or more deficient in patriotism than Englishmen generally are, of the perpetual presence of an irritating and disturbing element. This is Mr. Hawthorne's anti-English feeling. We can call it by no weaker name than that. From the beginning of the book to the end there is a succession, at intervals of only a few pages, of passages of the most acrid Americanism, conveying opinions respecting the English character which we should hardly have expected from Mr. Hawthorne, did we not know that somehow every American man, woman, and child has of late conceived a detestation of our nation so deep, so bitter, so intense, as to be comparable only to the feeling of the French, while yet revenge for Waterloo was the paramount desire of their Celtic souls. There is no way of showing the strength and keenness of this anti-English feeling which pervades the book, except by another series of extracts:—

That in the English Character which has lost America.—It has required nothing less than the boorishness, the stolidity, the self-sufficiency, the contemptuous jealousy, the half-sagacity, invariably blind of one eye and often distorted of the other, that characterize this strange people, to compel us to be a great nation in our own right, instead of continuing virtually, if not in name, a province of their small island. What pains did they take to shake us off, and have ever since taken to keep us wide apart from them! It might seem their folly, but was really their fate, or, rather, the Providence of God, who has, doubtless, a work for us to do, in which the massive materiality of the English character would have been too ponderous a dead-weight upon our progress.

The One-Eyedness of the English.—The secret of English practical success lies in their characteristic faculty of shutting one eye, whereby they get so distinct and decided a view of what immediately concerns them that they go stumbling towards it over a hundred insurmountable obstacles, and achieve a magnificent triumph without ever being aware of half its difficulties. If General McClellan could but have shut his left eye, the right one would long ago have guided us into Richmond.

English Girls.—The comely, rather than pretty, English girls, with their deep, healthy bloom, which an American taste is apt to deem fitter for a milk-maid than for a lady.

Elderly English Ladies.—I have heard a good deal of the tenacity with which English ladies retain their personal beauty to a late period of life; but (not to suggest that an American eye needs use and cultivation before it can quite appreciate the charm of English beauty at any age) it strikes me that an English lady of fifty is apt to become a creature less refined and delicate, as far as her physique goes, than anything that we western people class under the name of woman. She has an awful ponderosity of frame, not pulpy, like the looser development of our few fat women, but massive with solid beef and streaky tallow; so that (though struggling manfully against the idea) you inevitably think of her as made up of steaks and sirloins. When she walks, her advance is elephantine. When she sits down, it is on a great round space of her Maker's footstool, where she looks as if nothing could ever move her. She imposes awe and respect by the muchness of her personality, to such a degree that you probably credit her with far greater moral and intellectual force than she can fairly claim. Her visage is usually grim and stern, seldom positively forbidding, yet calmly terrible, not merely by its

breadth and weight of feature, but because it seems to express so much well-founded self-reliance, such acquaintance with the world, its toils, troubles, and dangers, and such sturdy capacity for trampling down a foe. Without anything positively salient, or actively offensive, or, indeed, unjustly formidable to her neighbours, she has the effect of a seventy-four gun-ship in time of peace; for, while you assure yourself that there is no real danger, you cannot help thinking how tremendous would be her onset, if pugnaciously inclined, and how futile the effort to inflict any counter-injury. She certainly looks tenfold—nay, a hundredfold—better able to take care of herself than our slender-framed and haggard womenkind; but I have not found reason to suppose that the English dowager of fifty has actually greater courage, fortitude, and strength of character than our women of similar age, or even a tougher physical endurance than they. Morally, she is strong, I suspect, only in society, and in the common routine of social affairs, and would be found powerless and timid in any exceptional strait that might call for energy outside of the conventionalities amid which she has grown up. You can meet this figure in the street, and live, and even smile at the recollection. But conceive of her in a ball-room, with the bare, brawny arms that she invariably displays there, and all the other corresponding development, such as is beautiful in the maiden blossom, but a spectacle to howl at in such an overblown cabbage-rose as this.

The Americans and the English.—We, in our dry atmosphere, are getting too nervous, haggard, dyspeptic, extenuated, unsubstantial, theoretic, and need to be made grosser. John Bull, on the other hand, has grown bulbous, long-bodied, short-legged, heavy-witted, material, and, in a word, too intensely English.

English Narrowness common to all Classes.—This insular narrowness is exceedingly queer, and of very frequent occurrence, and is quite as much a characteristic of men of education and culture as of clowns.

Earthiness of the English Character.—The English character, as I conceive it, is by no means a very lofty one; they seem to have a great deal of earth and grimy dust clinging about them, as was probably the case with the stalwart and quarrelsome people who sprouted up out of the soil, after Cadmus had sown the Dragon's teeth. And yet, though the individual Englishman is sometimes preternaturally disagreeable, an observer standing aloof has a sense of natural kindness towards them in the lump.

English Admirals.—Nine-tenths of these distinguished admirals, for instance, if their faces tell the truth, must needs have been blockheads, and might have served better, one would imagine, as wooden figure-heads for their own ships, than to direct any difficult and intricate scheme of action from the quarter-deck. It is doubtful whether the same kind of men will hereafter meet with a similar degree of success; for they were victorious chiefly through the old English hardihood, exercised in a field of which modern science had not yet got possession. Rough valour has lost something of its value since their days, and must continue to sink lower and lower in the comparative estimate of warlike qualities. In the next naval war, as between England and France, I would bet, methinks, upon the Frenchman's head.

Liking of Englishmen to have themselves Weighed.—It seemed very singular—though, of course, I immediately classified it as an English characteristic—to see (at Greenwich Fair) a great many portable weighing-machines, the owners of which cried out continually and amain—"Come, know your weight! Come, come, know your weight to-day! Come, know your weight!"—and a multitude of people, mostly large in the girth, were moved by this vociferation to sit down in the machines. I know not whether they valued themselves on their beef, and estimated their standing as members of society at so much a pound; but I shall set it down as a national peculiarity, and a symbol of the prevalence of the earthly over the spiritual element, that Englishmen are wonderfully bent on knowing how solid and physically ponderous they are.

English Girls again.—To be frank, however, at the first glance, and to my American eye, they looked all homely alike, and the chivalry that I suggest is more than I could have been capable of at any period of my life. They seemed to be country lasses, of sturdy and wholesome aspect, with coarse-grained, cabbage-rosy cheeks, and, I am willing to suppose, a stout texture of moral principle, such as would bear a good deal of rough usage without suffering much detriment. But how unlike the trim little damsels of my native land! I desire above all things to be courteous; but, since

the plain truth must be told, the soil and climate of England produce feminine beauty as rarely as they do delicate fruit, and, though admirable specimens of both are to be met with, they are the hot-house ameliorations of refined society, and apt, moreover, to relapse into the coarseness of the original stock. The men are man-like, but the women are not beautiful, though the female Bull be well enough adapted to the male.

English Notions of Female Virtue in the Lower Ranks.—It has often seemed to me that Englishmen of station and respectability, unless of a peculiarly philanthropic turn, have neither any faith in the feminine purity of the lower orders of their countrywomen, nor the slightest value for it, allowing its possible existence. The distinction of ranks is so marked, that the English cottage damsel holds a position somewhat analogous to that of the negro girl in our Southern States.

Origin of English Frankness.—These Englishmen are certainly a franker and simpler people than ourselves, from peer to peasant; but, if we can take it as compensatory on our part (which I leave to be considered), that they owe those noble and manly qualities to a coarser grain in their nature, and that, with a finer one in ours, we shall ultimately acquire a marble polish of which they are unsusceptible, I believe that this may be the truth.

The English insensible to their own Antiquities.—It is well that America exists, if it were only that her vagrant children may be impressed and affected by the historical monuments of England in a degree of which the native inhabitants are evidently incapable.

Personal Appearance of the English.—It being the first considerable assemblage of Englishmen that I had seen, my honest impression about them was, that they were a heavy and homely set of people, with a remarkable roughness of aspect and behaviour, not repulsive, but beneath which it required more familiarity with the national character than I then possessed always to detect the good breeding of a gentleman. Being generally middle-aged, or still further advanced, they were by no means graceful in figure; for the comeliness of the youthful Englishman rapidly diminishes with years, his body appearing to grow longer, his legs to abbreviate themselves, and his stomach to assume the dignified prominence which justly belongs to that metropolis of his system. His face (what with the acridity of the atmosphere, ale at lunch, wine at dinner, and a well-digested abundance of succulent food) gets red and mottled, and develops at least one additional chin, with a promise of more; so that, finally, a stranger recognises his animal part at the most superficial glance, but must take time and a little pains to discover the intellectual. Comparing him with an American, I really thought that our national paleness and lean habit of flesh gave us greatly the advantage in an æsthetic point of view. It seemed to me, moreover, that the English tailor had not done so much as he might and ought for these heavy figures, but had gone on wilfully exaggerating their uncouthness by the roominess of their garments; he had evidently no idea of accuracy of fit, and smartness was entirely out of his line. But, to be quite open with the reader, I afterwards learned to think that this aforesaid tailor has a deeper art than his brethren among ourselves, knowing how to dress his customers with such individual propriety that they look as if they were born in their clothes, the fit being to the character rather than the form. If you make an Englishman smart (unless he be a very exceptional one, of whom I have seen a few), you make him a monster; his best aspect is that of ponderous respectability.

This will be enough for the present. We think we can honestly pledge ourselves that, in making these extracts and stringing them thus together, we have not, in the least, misrepresented the general tenor of Mr. Hawthorne's book as respects his views of the Englishmen and Englishwomen who now tenant the "Old Home." We find, indeed, in our notes of the book, made while reading it, one solitary entry thus expressed:—"A word for the English—page so and so;" but, on reading on through the rest of the passage so noted, we find that we were obliged to add, "But ends, after all, in more vinegar." Now, we like Mr. Hawthorne too much to let him off with all this. We do not so much mind his calling ourselves gross and one-eyed and earthy and what not; but he has insulted our female relatives all round, including our most venerated and substantially-built maiden Aunt, who has been in tears ever since. So we mean to have it out with him. But that cannot be this week.

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PEDLEY'S HISTORY OF NEW-FOUNDLAND.

The History of Newfoundland, from the Earliest Times to the Year 1860. By the Rev. Charles Pedley of St. John's, Newfoundland. (Longman & Co.)

THE reverend and amiable author of this volume deserves the credit of having successfully grappled with one of the most serious difficulties which can beset the historian. How—divers writers of this class have at sundry periods felt themselves necessitated to inquire—can a historical narrative be composed without anything to narrate? Few can have been more seriously embarrassed than Mr. Pedley, who has, nevertheless, not only extricated himself, but extricated himself without recourse to any of those transparent little stratagems from which the severest criticism would hardly have the heart to debar a bookmaker in distress. All, we cheerfully admit, is fair and straightforward dealing on his part; the reader is not defrauded in the number of his pages, nor yet in the length of his lines—the spaces between the same are not to be termed unconscionable; the rivulets of Newfoundland are not rivulets of text, nor her meadows meadows of margin. In a word, the book is handsome and of good size, and the consumption of paper and ink involved in its production in every way commensurate with the dignity of the ichthyophagic isle. But, when we would seek for the substance of which these paraphernalia should be but the exterior vesture, we find ourselves utterly bewildered, confronted with Nature's abhorrence—a perfect vacuum. What the work really does contain we find it impossible to say. Something there must needs be found in these pages; but whatever information may have been at Mr. Pedley's command is, like the problematical atmosphere of the moon, diffused into such infinite tenuity as to be rather a matter for inference than observation. This unsatisfactory result is to be ascribed partly to the author's prudential reserve, on which we shall have a word to say presently, partly to his natural prolixity, but chiefly to an absolute lack of anything to tell. The political history of Newfoundland is the reverse of interesting. It has had one exciting crisis, when the English and French contended for the possession of the island, which was at one period almost entirely conquered by the latter; but either no deeds of daring were there achieved, or they have not been recorded. The rest of its history is either stagnation, the tranquil prosaic prosperity when the historian is the only idle member of the community, or a series of obscure local squabbles, bitter enough, but as uninteresting in themselves as the battles of the kites and the crows. We have said "in themselves," for they possess some interest in so far as they illustrate the working of colonial institutions. Newfoundland appears to be one of the most turbulent and unmanageable of all our settlements, the principal cause being the strength of the Irish and Roman Catholic element, which comprises nearly one-half of the population. The absence of a church-establishment deprives these religious differences of every plausible ground for assuming a political complexion; and it must be said to the credit of the ministers of the rival communions that they seem by no means disinclined to live in peace with each other. But, unfortunately, experience has shown that, whenever religious dissensions exist, they are sure to be taken advantage of by mischievous demagogues, who make it their business to stimulate the worst passions of fanaticism as a means of obtaining power or notoriety for themselves. That such has been the case in Newfoundland may be inferred from the fact that it was not until the people had obtained a constitution which for the first time afforded an opening for native political ambition that they discovered the impossibility of living in harmony till they were all agreed about the Council of Trent. Since that unlucky discovery the island has been in a state of perpetual turmoil,

and the Home Government were at one time obliged to suspend the constitution altogether. At the last election all the Protestants voted on one side, and all the Catholics on the other, there not being, so far as we can collect from Mr. Pedley's pages, any reason but the collision of personal claims for a division of parties at all. The elections, moreover—

Were attended with much tumult and riot, religious animosities making the bitterest element in the struggle. In St. John's many injuries were inflicted on persons and property, simply because a Protestant had dared to stand as a candidate. At Harbour Grace, where the Protestants were a large majority, and where they determined to make an effort to send members representing that majority, there were such disorder and violence and terror, that it was impossible to have an election at all. At Harbour Main, where the people were all Roman Catholics, where all the candidates were of the same faith, and where the only line of division was made by the clergy favouring one side and being opposed to the other, there was, besides much destruction of property, an affray in which guns were used, and a man of one of the factions was shot dead by the side of his priest. The result of the election seemed to show that the new government would be able to keep its place, a probability in which lay the seeds of a fearful day in St. John's.

In fact, there was a most disgraceful riot, not suppressed without bloodshed. It must be confessed that this state of things is very discouraging; and, though Newfoundland is probably the worst of our colonies, it is by no means alone in turbulence and incapacity for self-government. It is the fashion at present to decry the institutions of the United States; but it would be hard to show that any of our settlements emancipated from the strict control of the mother-country have shown anything like the organizing faculty of the Americans, or framed for themselves a constitution which worked nearly so well as theirs.

Mr. Pedley might have made his history more interesting by a more particular detail of the incidents attending the civil strife in Newfoundland, and a more minute characterization of the persons principally concerned. It may be easily conceived that he may have felt it incumbent upon him, as a minister of religion, to avoid giving offence, and abstain from participation in an embittered controversy. Such motives are creditable to him as a man, but should have equally dissuaded him from assuming the office of a historian. Nothing can be vaguer and more unsatisfactory than his history from the point where it might have been to a certain extent interesting. He has also interpreted the term "history" in a sense so narrow as almost to exclude all reference to the physical constitution of the country, and even its commerce and statistics. We cannot consider such information as this volume does contain at all proportionate either to the labour incurred or the price demanded; and, with every respect for the writer's amiability of feeling and frequent manifestations of good sense, we must pronounce whatever necessity may have existed for a "History of Newfoundland" to be by no means superseded by his publication.

"ELEANOR'S VICTORY."

Eleanor's Victory. By M. E. Braddon. Three Volumes. (Tinsley Brothers.)

ELEANOR'S victory—what is her victory? Is it over her foe or over herself? This is the question on which we are kept in suspense throughout this ably-written book, which enjoyed that one advantage of serial tales that the impatient reader could not anticipate the development of the plot by peeping at the end, and must needs dwell on each stage of the story before another was reached.

The outline of the tale is this:—Eleanor is the child of an old broken-down dandy, who commits suicide in despair at having been cheated into gambling away the sum committed to him for her education. A fragment of a letter left by him gives his daughter the impression that he has confided

vengeance to her as a sacred trust; and thenceforth, with brief intervals, she becomes an impersonation of Revenge. Going out as a musical governess, she comes in contact with a gentleman whom she identifies with her father's destroyer by the strange evidence of a sketch from memory of the fatal game at *écarté*, preserved in a portfolio, which she and her *confidante* open in its owner's presence, having been expressly told that it was private and not to be touched. She had in the meantime allowed herself to be married by one of those splendid romantic attorneys who have lately established a place in literature. The attorney, seeing her preoccupied by the villain, naturally becomes jealous, and, when convinced of her hatred, thinks it merely the reaction of disappointed love. Her scheme of revenge is to disclose the manner of her father's death, so as to cause her enemy to be deprived of the inheritance he expects from his uncle, one of the unhappy rich invalids whom we have so often met with surrounded with harpies watching their death-beds. In this plan Eleanor is disappointed; but she has the far greater satisfaction of watching her enemy exchange the real will for a forgery, and of herself capturing the genuine document, which she puts into her pocket. But, on proceeding to denounce the crime, she finds that it has disappeared; her story breaks down; her husband thinks her wild with jealous hatred, and deserts her; whereupon she engages herself as companion to a lady, who takes her to Paris. There she meets the villain's accomplice, and learns that he had robbed her of the will. He is about to drive a hard bargain for its production, but is fortunately prevented by a fit of *delirium tremens*, in the course of which he snatches it from his bosom, and hands it to her just as her repentant husband rushes in to be reconciled to her, and discover her to be the heiress nominated therein. The whole force now set off to confound the enemy, and bring him to his well-deserved punishment. Eleanor stands triumphant; but at the last moment public shame and ruin are averted from the wretched man by his mother, whose denunciations and entreaties prevail on Eleanor to lay aside her full vengeance, and leave him in peace to paint pre-Raffaellite pictures, and marry the second heroine. This is Eleanor's victory. We are told that the woman's heart triumphed over the cherished spirit of revenge, and are desired to look upon this as a heroic act of forgiveness. But we leave off with the question whether it was indeed magnanimity. Had she not worked out her purpose, obtained her triumph, and trampled upon her foe in his dire humiliation; and was not this all the gratification that the passion could seek? Since goblets formed from the skulls of enemies went out of fashion, it has probably been the dream of vindictiveness to first prostrate the foe, and then let him go. Even the dagger would be sweeter to a high spirit than a court of justice and penal servitude. There is something far more deep and true in the conclusion of "Monte Cristo," when the Count finds himself unable to check the machinery of vengeance that he had set in motion, suffers by the miseries that he has himself brought about, and owns his error in seeking to be a providence.

All along there is a protest against Eleanor's dire purpose. We are told that it is a fatal error, and she is assured that it is neither womanly nor Christian. But all this has the effect of a mere conventional concession to the opinions of a Christian land; and we are led on to sympathize, and regard the deadly purpose as something grand—not, indeed, Christian or womanly, but something finer! And, certainly, it may be allowed, some grandeur—but that of the burning throne! Eleanor, with her four years' silent cherished purpose of revenge, her desire to "lure" her victim on "to commit some crime" that could bring him under the power of the law, is not like a woman, but a beautiful fiend; and, though she is not a murderess like Lady Audley, nor dextrous with the horsewhip

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like Aurora Floyd, there is the same anomalous contrast of the beautiful engaging exterior with the fearful purpose within. Is this in human nature? The great masters of old time scarcely thought so. Even Orestes becomes a prey to the Furies (though not until after the stroke); and Hamlet, bound to revenge by the like sense of filial affection, loses the balance of his intellect in the horror of the contemplation, and only fulfils his purpose in the frenzy of casual excitement. Steady perseverance in this one fatal aim, and an aim more fiendish than even the avenging blow, once an act of wild justice, is reserved for a delicately nurtured young lady, from fifteen to nineteen—save for this master-passion, so charming as to win all who approached her, transparently truthful, and ready to live happy ever after as a good wife when all is over. The rapid vendetta of the stiletto, the deadly feud regarded as a sacred duty by a whole clan, are far less fearful than such a mood; and all that we can hope is that such "dove-feathered ravens, wolfish ravens, lambs," have not often found a counterpart in human nature.

For the rest, the story is well told. There are immense improbabilities; but these are legitimate as long as they come about in a natural manner; and several of the characters and conversations are excellent and spirited. Considerable talent is shown in the babble of the two silly women, mother and daughter—excessively foolish, and no doubt most wearisome to the auditors, but so managed as to be a very amusing element in the story; and the mother's satisfaction in having been the heroine of a romance, though openly avowing her own very bad conduct in it, is most excellently drawn. Eleanor's friends, too—the kind-hearted scene-painter and his aunt—are delightful portraits on the whole; the Signora is without a drawback; but, after all we have been told of Dick's gentlemanly perfections, we are rather taken by surprise by his search into Mr. Darrell's private portfolio, when he had just been warned off from it. In fact, ladies and gentlemen are not Miss Braddon's strong point, or she would hardly have made either Mr. Vane consent, or Darrell think it possible to ask of him to leave his daughter to walk home alone through the streets of Paris at eleven o'clock at night. However he might forget her interests out of sight, the instinct of protection would have made him unable to shake her off his arm.

In spite of all we have said, we recognise great talent in the story, and far less violent drawing than in Miss Braddon's two former works. There is so much capability of excellence that we cannot but desire that her tales were equal in their design to their execution. We do not mean that they should be didactic tales, nor tales with a moral, but only tales where the moral is not warped, nor the interest and admiration misdirected.

THE BOURSE AND ITS SPECULATORS.

La Bourse et les Signes du Siècle. Par Eugène de Mirecourt.

La Bourse : Guide Pratique à l'Usage des Gens du Monde. Usages de la Bourse—Le Placement—La Spéculation—Notions de Crédit—Banques, Changes, Monnaie. Par A. Crampon. (Paris: H. Durand.)

ONE of the most remarkable features of the France of the present day is the desire which everybody has of growing suddenly rich. Not merely do the *badauds* of Paris desire to become millionaires suddenly, but they desire to be wealthy without toil or labour of any kind. The thirst of gold, it is plain, devours all hearts, whether male or female; yet every day the indulgence of these sordid passions, absorbing the active energies of Frenchmen and Frenchwomen, leads to alternations of fortune rarely productive of happiness, and very often productive of dishonour, dishonesty, and crime. Gambling, whether in a *maison de jeu* or on the Bourse,

is destructive of all morality, and is the fruitful parent of iniquity. It is not, however, in gambling-houses, around a table covered with a green cloth, that the worst evils of play are apparent. The vice has, during some years, in another form, insinuated itself into very many classes of society in France, who seem to possess principles, habitudes, ideas, and a language different from those of men of probity and honour. For individuals of the character of which we speak, life itself is but a *coup de dé*, and each appears to think that fortune belongs to the most venturesome.

No doubt, under the reign of the elder Bourbons, the commercial energy and resources of France were not sufficiently developed, and there was but little profitable employment or circulation of capital in useful enterprises; but during the last ten years Frenchmen have rushed into the opposite extreme of excessive and rash speculation. All sorts of schemes, inviting employment of the most extensive and the humblest capitals, have been set afoot; and the consequence is that there have been many social misadventures and misfortunes. The worst feature in this avidity for gain is that every man and woman desires to make proselytes in those whom he or she can influence, whether in his or her own rank, or the ranks beneath them. They solicit friends and relatives, dependants, tradesmen, and servants to become shareholders in this or that enterprise. The savings of the man or woman-cook, the hard earnings of the *femme de charge*, the one hundred francs of the gardener, are all put under contribution. Many and many a *prolétaire* in the country parts of France has been induced by a Parisian friend or acquaintance to risk savings which would have been better applied to the cultivation of his paternal fields. Many indolent and unenergetic natures, too, are led by a disrelish for honest labour, which only recompenses patient and persevering efforts, to speculate at the Bourse; others are stimulated by envy and covetousness—passions which torture reptile minds only hankering after gain.

It is not to be denied that honourable and honest men are also frequently tempted to speculate hazardingly. For a while they gain continuously; but an evil day comes when there is an endless succession of losses, and then the virtue of the firmest is often tried, and frequently succumbs to temptation. On a calm consideration of a long series of speculations at the Bourse, a philosopher would come to the conclusion that industrious and patient labour is, taken all in all, the happiest thing for man. Happy and successful turns of the wheel of fortune, or, as they call them, *coups*, may occasionally give gold in countless heaps; but this addition of fortune is seldom accompanied with public esteem. Under the elder and the junior Bourbons, a moderate fortune in any town or city of France was generally, as a rule, the fruit of forty years of toil and privation. Now, by speculations in the *Crédit Foncier*, or *Crédit Mobilier*, in the *Crédit Industriel*, in the *Mobilier Espagnol*, or in the Orleans, Lyons, or Eastern Railroads, in the Messageries, in gas companies, or in *Transatlantiques*, some score of citizens acquire a considerable accession of wealth, but, on the other hand, hundreds are ruined.

The ruin of so many families is not the worst feature in the case. Among the successful and the ruined the process of speculating day by day in fictitious or supposititious values engenders a selfishness, a sordidness, and a hardness of heart unimaginable to those who have not witnessed it. The sudden rise to wealth, also, of so many men destitute of industry and superior merit excites all the grosser and baser instincts of our nature. Those who rush headlong after the successful speculator never think of the fate of a more numerous class—the unsuccessful. Many of these shoot, poison, or drown themselves, or become forgers or fraudulent bankrupts.

It may be answered that it is difficult to repress avarice and avidity and the mania

for speculation. No doubt it is; but usury and fraud, commercial dishonesty and fraudulent misrepresentation, may be repressed by more stringent laws than any now in force among our neighbours. Since the press of France has been deprived of its liberty and restricted in its comments on public affairs, several of the French journals have been purchased by jobbers on the Exchange, and have made journalism subsidiary to puffing and bolstering up speculations which would otherwise collapse or explode. We had our markets pretty well rigged in London in 1846 and 1847, and some few discreditable journals were then accomplices; but anything which took place in London seventeen years ago is but a very pale and feeble copy of what is now taking place every day in France.

It may be answered that there are honest, honourable, and well-intentioned speculators, men who legitimately seek from the skilled employment of capital, under the guarantee of the State, the greatest sum which capital will produce. This is all fair; and it is not against such men M. de Mirecourt raises his voice, but against those pests of modern French society who, beginning without capital, having private sources of information, by watching the turn of the market, gain a 100,000 francs by a lucky *coup* in the course of half-an-hour. Emile Augier describes the race well in his piece *L'Honneur et l'Argent* :—

J'ai beau piocher, bêcher et herser le terrain,
Semer et moissonner, battre et vanner le grain,
Me lever avant l'aube et rentrer la nuit close,
Travailler comme un bœuf qui jamais ne repose :

Quand je vivrais cent ans je ne gagnerais pas
Ce qu'il gagne en un jour en se croissant le bras.

Fortunes of this kind, rapidly and illegitimately acquired, throw discredit on honest labour, and infuse into the minds of the laborious classes sentiments perfectly incompatible with the pursuits of honest industry. The grandfathers of the present race of Frenchmen were taught to think that honest labour was the first duty of man. There is not a notary's, an attorney's, or a stockbroker's clerk in Paris who now believes in such a doctrine. All the smart and fast men in Paris of the present day and hour wish to be concerned in what is called "*l'agiotage*"—that is to say, they wish to have usurious profits in trafficking in what, in the jargon of the Exchange, is called "*sur la hausse et la baisse des effets publics*."

The germ of this system may unquestionably be traced back to the time of Louis XV. The taste of this prince for magnificence, and the favour he bestowed on those *Fermiers Généraux* and *Financiers* who were magnificent and prodigal in their way of living, threw many fortunes into dilapidation. Then came what were called "*valeurs fictives*," and bundles of discredited bills and bonds which nobody would discount. The evil increased under the Regent Orleans, when John Law emitted his Louisiana bonds and his Mississippi shares, launched his Royal Bank, and made his mansion in the Rue Quincampoix the theatre of gambling almost as hazardous as any practised in Paris in our day. But the bubble burst after a while, and ruined thousands who had hoped to be millionaires. We shall witness a recurrence of like miseries before the end of 1863, unless the wild and reckless gambling of the "*courtiers marrons*" of Paris be checked.

The whole history and mystery of the operations of the Parisian Bourse is detailed in the volume we have placed second at the head of this article. The writer, who is a thoroughly practical man, tells us that, although there are many provincial *Bourses*, in reality the source and centre of all is the Bourse of Paris. That is really the Bourse *par excellence*. The following details concerning it are not generally known :—It is open all the year, excepting Sundays and certain holidays—to wit, New-year's day, Ascension day, the Assumption, All Saints' day, and Christmas day. The market opens by sound of bell at half-past twelve, and it shuts at three. The

agents, equivalent to our stockbrokers, are called *agents de change*. Their offices or functions are called *charge*, and may be sold. They bear a value in proportion to the number of customers. No *agent de change* is admitted to the Bourse unless he is accepted by his brethren (represented by a syndical chamber) and the Minister of Finance. In the time of the Bourbons an *agent de change* was obliged to offer a security of 125,000 francs, which is now raised to 250,000. The price paid for the place of *agent de change* has varied. At the commencement of the Restoration the sum was 300,000 francs; it rose almost to a million of francs in the reign of Charles X., in 1825; it fell to 500,000 and 600,000 francs at the close of the reign of Louis Philippe, in 1847. Since the commencement of the Empire there has again, owing to the universal prevalence of speculation, been a rise in the value of the office. In the year 1856 the *charge* sold from 2,000,000 to 2,500,000 francs; at present it only fetches 1,600,000 francs.

The place in which the agents assemble is called the *parquet*, and all business is done between the agent of the buyer and the agent of the seller. There are operations, 1st, *au comptant*, and 2ndly, *à terme*, or for the account, as in our funds. What is called *la liquidation* lasts two days—the first and second of each month; the second day is dedicated to the liquidation of foreign funds and securities. Women are not allowed to enter into the business part of the Bourse; but they may remain as spectators in the galleries, in which, and around the building, they speculate and gamble quite as much as the men.

There are four species of public funds in France, but by successive conversion they almost all tend at present to fusion in one single fund—the Three-per-Cents. These four classes of securities are:—1st, the Four-and-a-Halfs, anciently the old Five-per-Cents., whose origin dates from the establishment of the great book of the public debt. The name of *Tiers Consolidé* was given to the old Five-per-Cents. during the French Revolution. In 1852 the interest on the Five-per-Cents. was reduced one-half per cent.; and it is thus that the old Fives, called *Tiers Consolidé*, became Four-and-a-Half. Before 1852 there existed a public fund called the Four-and-a-Half, dating from the Restoration; but this did not amount to a million. The total of the Four-and-a-Halfs amounted in February 1862 to about 172 millions of francs. The permissive conversion of the Four-and-a-Halfs into Three-per-Cents., organized by M. Fould in March 1862, has resulted in leaving a residue of only 40 millions of Four-and-a-Halfs.

The Four-per-Cents. have almost entirely disappeared. This stock represented only about 2,100,000 francs of *rentes*. This fund was the result of the most advantageous loan which had ever been made at the close of the Restoration, and which was taken above par at 102 francs, 75 centimes.

The Three-per-Cent. has become the principal fund of the French debt. It is to M. de Villemor, the Minister of the Restoration, that is due the idea of the conversion of the debt into a three-per-cent. fund. Before the conversion of M. Fould, the Three-per-Cent. amounted to a little more than 162 millions of *rente annuelle*. Now it is encumbered with an additional sum of about 145 millions, resulting from the permissive conversion of the greater part of the Four-per-Cent. and of the greater part of the "*Obligations Trentennaires*." It is, therefore, evident that the Three-per-Cent. has a tendency to become the principal French fund, as it has long been the fund preferred. Villemor, full forty years ago, saw that the Three-per-Cent. had a greater elasticity than any other fund.

The *Obligations du Trésor*, called *Obligations Trentennaires*, is a fund which, like the Four-per-Cent., has a tendency to disappear. It originated in subventions granted to railroad companies. Fifteen millions of francs of *rente annuelle* represent these titles. These *Obligations Trentennaires* inaugurated a new era. They substituted loans to be

paid at a fixed epoch for loans in perpetuity. The conversion of the *Obligations Trentennaires* has been an intelligent operation on the part of M. Fould in every aspect of the question. The interest on all these loans is payable half-yearly.

From what we have said in the foregoing part of this article it will be abundantly evident that the men who gamble and play at hazard on the Bourse for the last twelve years wish to be considered as speculators. But they really are not speculators in the best acceptance of the word. Between honourable and legitimate speculation and this hap-hazard playing at the game of chances, there is a wide difference. Legitimate speculation is based on intelligence and experience; and, though intelligence and experience may be occasionally at fault, yet so is sometimes theory itself when opposed to practice. Playing on the Bourse, on the other hand, has no other basis than chance. Legitimate and honourable speculation, it may be remarked, labours for the creation of new wealth. But the play or Bourse-gambling of which we have been speaking labours only to take out of the pockets of the twenty-three letters of the alphabet to put into the pocket of the twenty-fourth letter—the speculator himself. This displacement of money has no social or economic consequence. Gambling at the Bourse is quite as unprofitable to the world at large as gambling at *rouge et noir*. Peter is robbed to the profit of Paul's pocket—that's all. The money has changed places, but it has not increased a centime. Indeed, it has even diminished, for the winner has been obliged to pay a commission or brokerage to his *agent de change* or *courtiers*. The benefits that one class of gamblers find in this sort of work is made up of the losses of other speculators. The majority of these gamblers are predestined to ruin. Supposing that chance favours this species of gambler once, twice, or twenty times, a day of reckoning at length comes, when the luck he has for a time enjoyed turns against him. The gamblers of whom we speak are seldom men of large capital; and one condition for success in this game is to have large capital and your hands full of securities of all sorts. A successful speculator should always be in a condition to deliver if he has sold, and to pay for if he has purchased. But it sometimes even happens that the man of great capital has also his reverses. No speculator, however rich, could have foreseen the rise consequent on the sudden death of the Emperor Nicholas of Russia, or on the unexpected peace of Villafranca.

As a proof of the reckless commercial gambling that at present exists among our neighbours, we may remark that a cargo of cotton has been sold fifty or sixty times before the vessel in which it was freighted was seen in the offing of Havre. The *boursiers*, from what we have written, would appear to be divided into two classes, *fleurs et floués*. They are thus described by Ponsard:—

Oui, les joueurs y sont partagés en deux corps—
Les faibles dans un camp, et dans l'autre les forts.
Grâce aux gros bataillons qu'ils tirent de leur caisse,
Ceux-ci font à leur choix ou la hausse ou la baisse,
Si bien que l'un des camps étant maître de cours
Toujours gagne pendant que l'autre perd toujours.

V. K.

"OUR VILLAGE" AND "THE INITIALS."

Our Village: Sketches of Rural Character and Scenery. By Mary Russell Mitford. New Edition. First and Second Series. Two Volumes. (H. G. Bohn.)

The Initials. A Novel. By the Author of "Quits," &c. Sixth Edition. (Bentley.)

THE south-of-England village! How calm and sweet it looks as it breaks on you through a rift of the chalk of the southern downs. You leave the bright shimmer of the silver sea, dip down into the basin of an ancient ocean, its long slopes stubble-bare and brown; then up the undulating hill,

brightened by a patch of fresh turnip-green, bordered by a blaze of poppies; and, when you have passed the scantily-wooded lane beyond—closed in, as you fancy, by that great white scar in your front—you turn and see the rich flat Wealden before you, and, set in the frame of the hills, the square-towered church and homesteads of the village at peace at your feet. The sheep-bells near ring its lullaby; and you are well content to believe it the home of all that is simple, beautiful, and true. None the less sweet do those Berkshire villages look, to one of which Miss Mitford took our fathers in 1824, before some of us, whom she now takes there too, were born. Suppose you and a dozen companions have been stimulated by that charming "Scouring of the White Horse" into a desire to see the hill of that noble animal, with its forelegs detached from its body, and its muzzle like a duck's beak—or a dragon's, shall we say? Your first night, about twelve, for want of inns you take refuge in a cattleless straw-yard. The knowing men crouch under the hay-rick outside; three sit on a felled tree; and the rest have to burrow like pigs into the straw of the yard—luckily clean, but a very poor blanket against the sharp spring night-air. At half-past three the rickmen unearth, or rather unstraw you, with assurances that early rising is the custom of the country; and, as in the breaking dawn you tramp the long hill-road to your nine-mile distant inn in hopes of your breakfast, and see below you the quiet villages, one after the other sending up their solitary line of blue smoke to the sky, you do wish, take our word for it, to be in a cosy Berkshire home. Well, you soon are there, so far as an inn is a home; and how you appreciate the country beer, chickens, eggs, bacon, &c., may be better imagined than described, while the brown hair and mauve ribbons, smiles and eyes of the landlord's daughter must needs be left to the reader's fancy.

It is fortunate that the task of describing "country scenery and country manners, as they exist in a small village in the south of England," fell to one of such a spirit as Mary Russell Mitford evidently was. We have never read her life, and know nothing of her beyond her loving description of Mrs. Barrett Browning, and the present book; but the internal evidence of these is enough to show what a sweet sunshiny nature she was of. Positively, as you read the pages, you fancy the scent of the violets, cowslips, and woodroof rise from them; and blue-eyed Lizzy and pretty greyhound May seem to prattle and frisk about you. It is a book that Washington Irving in America and our colonies will read with longing delight, picturing to themselves their forefathers' happy homes. And what a treasure it will be to our descendants! Just think how we should delight in a book of the kind about the homes of Shakespeare's time, or another as fresh and sweet to fill in the clear outline that bright old Chaucer has left us. Truly Mr. Ruskin has said few wiser things than when he advised all people of the second rank, who came short of the highest gifts of imagination, to describe in print and letter, honestly and lovingly, what they saw, to leave a record of their time and circumstance to those that are to follow them. And, soon after Keats and Shelley had gone, in the year that Byron died, and Milton's Christian Doctrine was discovered, in the year that "will ever be memorable, for the sake of the benefit secured to the manufacturing classes by the new man of the new time" [Huskisson], it is a happy thing that Miss Mitford told to the world what she saw in "*Our Village*." She seems to describe herself and her lot in the last paragraphs of "*Olive Hathaway*":—

There's a magic about her placid smile and her sweet low voice; no sulkiness of bird or beast can resist their influence. And Olive hath abundance of pets in return, from my greyhound Mayflower, downwards; and, indeed, takes the whole animal world under her protection, whether pets or no; begs off condemned kittens, nurses sick ducklings, will give her last penny to prevent an unlucky

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urchin from taking a bird's nest; and is cheated and laughed at for her tender-heartedness, as is the way of the world in such cases. Yes, Olive will certainly be an old maid, and a happy one,—content and humble, and cheerful and beloved! What can woman desire more?

Not a husband, certainly, we think; for the selfish beings always want all the brightest and warmest of the sunshine for themselves, and now we get it, instead, over every man, woman, and child, bird, beast, scene, and flower about the village. Whether it is "that sad dog the cobbler," beautiful Hannah, the ticked puppy, or the sloppy thaw—all are a-glow with the warm tint of the writer's happy spirit. See how she throws herself into "the county cricket-match:"—

Oh, how well we fielded! and how well we bowled! Samuel Long is a slow bowler, George Simmons a fast one, and the change from Long's lobbing to Simmon's fast balls posed them completely. Poor simpletons! they were always wrong, expecting the slow for the quick, and the quick for the slow. Well, we went in. And what were our innings! Guess again!—guess! A hundred and sixty-nine! In spite of soaking showers and wretched ground, where the ball would not run a yard, we headed them by a hundred and forty-seven. And then they gave in. And well they might. . . . What a glorious sensation it is to be for five hours together winning—winning—winning! always feeling what a whist-player feels when he takes up four honours, seven trumps!

Tom Cordery, the poacher, audacious urchin Bill, gawky Mr. Morris, &c., &c., are all sketched in with the same bright colour; and the radical Cranley cobbler—we hope it was the Surrey Cranley where we robbed an orchard once—who saves his country by forming one of the glorious majority of seven, by which a silent, stupid, and respectable Whig Brown ousts an equally silent and stupid Tory Smith—sits for a special sketch. We should like to print half the book by way of extract, or at least abstract half the stories; but, as that cannot be, we must just bid the reader buy the book, read "A Christmas Party," and then all the other stories and descriptions. If he knows the smell of a cowslip, or has ever walked in spring with a bright fair girl—as dear to him as you like—down a Surrey lane, its green banks glowing with primroses and oxalis ("kiss-me-quick," the natives wisely call the plant), we think "Our Village" will remind him of the one by its simple sweetness, and the other by its joyous brightness.

It is a curious change to turn to "The Initials," and its land where they brew Bavarian beer.

"We have a very fine nature here!"

Hamilton looked puzzled, or she thought him a little deaf, for she spoke louder as she said, "A very beautiful nature!" He bowed and coloured slightly.

"Mamma will say our prospects are very good," said the younger lady in explanation.

"Ha! prospects!" he repeated.

"What you call lanskip—*paysage*? Is not good English? No?"

"Oh, very good English," he answered.

Now although we are prepared to believe that the "nature" is very fine, yet the change from the village sun to the Bavarian grey is as great as from Turner's "Lausanne Lake" to his "Llanthony Abbey." Nevertheless, that Englishmen can appreciate one as well as the other, let the "sixth edition" on the title-page of "The Initials" testify. One is glad to see how one's haughty, rich young countryman works the nonsense out of himself, and marries his landlady's daughter, who has brought up his tray and cooked his broth, and likes fine pocket-handkerchiefs, but who is his equal in mind and soul, and a fit match for an English gentleman. But the quiet half-tints of the picture, the slow following-out of every detail, present a curious contrast to the glow and briskness of the English authoress. However, as the scenes are all in a land where the people wear, or used to wear, their coat waist-buttons between their shoulders, and you

have to say "thank you" to the man to whom you give up the girl you've been waltzing with, the damsel looking "delighted at this most approved mode of publicly doing her homage," one mustn't be surprised if things are not managed in exactly English fashion. The short accounts of Bavarian customs; the wreathing graves on All Saint's Day; the fair, with its noise, and talking, and bargaining; the "*mariages de convenance*"; the target shooting-match; the factory and scenes of home life,—are very interesting in a quiet way, and very fresh and real to one who, like the reviewer, does not know them in their own land. A quiet paddle on the river at evening is very enjoyable, though you like a gallop on the downs better, the sea-air blowing about you, and your old horse snorting with delight as he rushes at a furze-bush that reminds him of a stiff hedge between him and the hounds.

SPEECHES AND LETTERS OF WENDELL PHILLIPS.

Speeches, Lectures, and Letters by Wendell Phillips. (Boston: James Redpath; London: Trübner & Co.)

A GOOD deal has been said in England about the bunkum talked in American speeches, the incessant flattery that their orators pour forth on their hearers, and the necessity they are under of glorifying the material greatness of the States. Not less has been said of the rabid fanaticism of the abolitionists. We were prepared, then, for some exaggeration, some bad taste, some pandering to popular passion in the speeches of "the rabid fanatic, Wendell Phillips," as we have often heard him called. But what do we find? Take a sample from the speech on "Lincoln's Election," dated November 1860:—

The saddest thing in the Union meetings of last year was the constant presence, in all of them, of the clink of coin, the whir of spindles, the dust of trade. You would have imagined it was an insurrection of pedlars against honest men. Mr. Everett at Faneuil Hall, when he sought for the value of the Union, could only bewail the loss of our "commercial intercourse," the certainty of "hostile tariffs," and danger to the "navy"! And this is literally all the merits of the Union which he catalogues! No; I do him injustice. He does ask, trembling, in case of disunion, "Where, O where, will be the flag of the United States?" Well, I think the Historical Society had better take it for their Museum. . . . But I must confess those pictures of the mere industrial value of the Union made me profoundly sad. I look, as, beneath the skilful pencil, trait after trait leaps to glowing life, and ask at last, Is this all? Where are the nobler elements of national purpose and life? Is this the whole fruit of ages of toil, sacrifice, and thought,—those cunning fingers, the overflowing lap, labour vocal on every hill side, and commerce whitening every sea—all the dower of one haughty, overbearing race? The zeal of the Puritan, the faith of the Quaker, a century of Colonial health, and then this large civilization, does it result only in a workshop,—sops melted in baths and perfumes, and men grim with toil? Raze out, then, the Eagle from our banner, and paint instead Niagara used as a cotton-mill? O no! not such the picture my glad heart sees when I look forward. Once plant deep in the nation's heart the love of right, let there grow out of it the firm purpose of duty, and then from the higher plane of Christian manhood we can put aside, on the right hand and the left, these narrow, childish, and mercenary considerations.

Are these the words of a fanatic? May they not be the words of a strong-hearted, clear-sighted man, of whom we can think that, whatever may be the peculiarities of his creed, and whether they can be accepted as they are or not, he is a teacher of his nation, and a pilot of some of its thoughts through the storm? Or look at his portrait. It is that of an able, gentle, cultivated Englishman, with those deep-set, far-looking eyes that your sea-side physician picks you out a pilot by. The head of a good and wise man, reminding one of Charles Darwin's, shall we say? Not a man surely to talk

twaddle, or bunkum, but to see distinctly the port he himself thinks safe, and make straight for it, and tell his crew, in plain and simple words, how to get there. The man's faith, too, in the power of ideas; his certainty that, if Northern belief and freedom, and Northern intelligence—with all their drawbacks—are left side by side with Southern slavery and ignorance, they must prevail and conquer;—have a certain superbness in them, coming, as they do, from one who looks back on thirty-two years of persecution, and, till lately, seemingly resultless toil. He knows the want of his country.

You cannot save men by machinery. What India and France and Spain wanted was live men; and that is what we want to-day—men who are willing to look their own destiny and their own responsibilities in the face. "Grant me to see, and Ajax asks no more." . . . The intelligent, thoughtful, and determined gaze of twenty millions of Christian people,—there is nothing, no institution wicked and powerful enough to be able to stand against it.

The whole of Mr. Phillips's anti-slavery speeches, before the breaking out of the war, are moral-force speeches; but, when the South chose war, then the tone changed, and the abolitionist said, "Let them have it; but with no ninety days' nonsense—gird yourselves for battle to the death." The following passage from a speech "On the State of the Country," delivered in the spring of the present year, has a ring in it that will impress all readers who can look at the American struggle, not necessarily as partisans for the present of the North or the South, but at a long range of history:—

This war will never be ended by an event. It will never come to a conclusion by a great battle. It is too deep in its sources; it is too wide in its influence for that. The great struggle in England between democracy and nobility lasted from 1640 to 1660, taking a king's life in its progress, and yet failed for the time. The great struggle between the same parties in France began in 1789, and it is not yet ended. Our own Revolution began in 1775, and never, till the outbreak of the French Revolution concentrated the attention of the monarchies of Europe, was this country left in peace. And it will take ten or twenty years to clear off the scar of such a struggle. Prepare yourself for a life-long enlistment. God has launched this Union on a voyage whose only port is Liberty; and, whether the President relents, or whether the cabin-boys conspire, it matters not,—absolute justice holds the helm, and we never shall come into harbour until every man under the flag is free.

Mr. Phillips sees clearly that what the North has to overcome in the South is not only Lee's army, but the confirmed Southern state of mind. He sees that the war for an idea—Southern independence—has raised the slave-breeders and buyers into something like nobleness and real life, and that so far peace would be a loss to them. But nevertheless, he maintains, freedom must be established and slavery annihilated; and therefore, if the North can conquer the Southern army, it must hold the Southern States till they have learnt the lesson of free schools, a free press, and equal justice. As to Mr. Abe Lincoln's scheme of exporting the blacks, that, he says, would be depriving the North of the material it most needs to work with. The black is the working man of the South, the brother mechanic of the Yankee—are you to send away the very man you cannot do without? No—the South must be colonized by the North. The land, says Mr. Phillips, must be confiscated if necessary—at any rate sold with a guaranteed title to the Massachusetts man or New Yorker—and ploughshares, seeds, schools, sewing-machines, and the men who mean equal right for black and white must follow. We confess that the problem, as so stated by Mr. Phillips, does not look very inviting to us, who have heard so much of the Southern chivalry and the Northern bragging vulgarity; but the reply from the Abolitionists would doubtless be that any man, who has manliness enough left to value an honest man, though vulgar, above one with refined manners, who would sell his own

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daughter or mistress, will not shrink from accepting all the turmoil of the issue. Mr. Phillips does not think the work an easy one. Suppose the South conquered and slavery abolished—that, he says, will be but the beginning of the problem.

There remains behind the still greater and more momentous problem, whether we have the strength, the balance, the virtue, the civilization, to absorb six millions of ignorant, embittered, bedeviled Southerners, and transmute them into honest, decent, educated, well-behaved, Christian mechanics, worthy to be the brothers of New England Yankees.

The way and means to this end on the part of the North are, according to Mr. Phillips, to do as England did in 1640—that is, get rid gradually of those men in public places who do not believe in progress, but mean to live in the past, and in their stead bring to the front men who are earnest in the present. Layer after layer of the superficialities and officialities of the Northern body-politic must be peeled off as useless, until, as he expresses it, you get to the sound core “of civil and military purpose, the earnest belief, the single-hearted intense devotion to victory, the entire belief in justice which can cope with Stonewall Jackson. Never till then shall we succeed.” Meantime, he concludes, let the legislature take one step further, and pass “an act of Congress abolishing slavery wherever our flag waves.” Here are his last words:—

Never until we welcome the negro, the foreigner, all races as equals, and, melted together in a common nationality, hurl them all at despotism, will the North deserve triumph or earn it at the hands of a just God. But the North will triumph. I hear it. Do you remember in that disastrous siege in India, when the Scotch girl raised her head from the pallet of the hospital, and said to the sickening hearts of the English, “I hear the bagpipes; the Campbells are coming,” and they said, “Jessie, it is delirium.” “No, I know it; I heard it far off.” And in an hour the pibroch burst upon their glad ears, and the banner of England floated in triumph over their heads. So I hear in the dim distance the first notes of the jubilee rising from the hearts of the millions. Soon, very soon, you shall hear it at the gates of the citadel, and the Stars and Stripes shall guarantee liberty for ever from the Lakes to the Gulf.

Even those who can like neither this book nor its author, and who will still regard his influence as that of a fanatic, will be helped, we believe, to a truer estimate of the cause of the war, and of the complexity of passions which it involves, by reading speeches so full of fervid conviction and eloquent prophecy.

OUR GARDEN FRIENDS AND FOES.

Our Garden Friends and Foes. By the Rev. J. G. Wood, M.A., F.L.S. (Routledge, Warne, and Routledge.)

PLEASANT books on subjects combining both instruction and reproof are still but few in number; and the list of subjects requiring such treatment is far from being exhausted. The elimination of the evil element from out the good, in what may be termed the domestic life of the garden, has not previously been attempted in this country, save in papers contributed to periodicals; chief among which are those of the late Mr. Curtis, published in the *Journal of the Royal Agricultural Society*, and a similar series which has more recently appeared in the *Gardeners' Chronicle*. Our transatlantic friends have been better instructed; for Dr. Emmons devotes the fifth volume of his “Agriculture of New York” to an elaborate dissertation upon the subject, while they have a still better guide in the “Treatise upon some of the Insects injurious to Vegetation,” by Dr. Thaddeus Harris, a new edition of which was revised last year by Professor Agassiz. On the continent the communications of M. Boisgiraud to the *Revue Zoologique* have been of like service.

It is impossible to over-estimate the importance of the question, whether as regards its practical bearing, or the large philosophical views involved. Considerations of the latter section Mr. Wood wisely defers till

a larger amount of observations shall have been made. Possibly many phenomena which belong to the subject are traceable to simple causes; and those comprised within the group relating to the spread and distribution of creatures hurtful, or the reverse, in the economy of the garden, are due to local ones, sometimes within our power to modify or altogether repress. Nebulous patches, so to speak, of insect life may in some years be mapped out as shrouding the clearness of the crops with a haze of whirling wings, or darkening vegetation with a smut of noxious crawlers. One year the fernshaw, or bracken clock beetle (*Phyllopertha horticola*), eats up the produce of the garden; another, cockchafers come down upon us with a locust-like power of devastation; while the plant growth of a third summer may vanish before the omnivorous ravages of lepidopterous caterpillars. We seize the ground by a divinely-appointed law, but we cannot pay off the claims of its prior occupants. That patch of ground is not your garden, my friend; you are but the distracted manager of many interests, antagonistic to each other, and some in antagonism to you. A portion of your co-inheritors will settle down on the spot and work zealously; the starling will clear the ground of noxious grubs, and the weasel will hunt your mice as surely as a good hound follows a fox. Others, though meaning well, will give you trouble. Mr. Shareholder Mole, in extirpating your worms, will undermine the common property; and the good which swallows do will hardly reconcile your lady-wife to the unsightliness of their nests. But, while protecting these, in a greater or less degree, you will have to be on the alert to prevent more distant shareholders, as the “warrener,” or “parker,” or “gypsy” rabbit, from making mischievous raids upon the common stock, and hundreds of grub-kind, both residential and vagrant, from giving gastronomic performances with the entire strength of the company.

If we assemble our garden friends, we shall find some unfamiliar faces among their ranks. The hornet is on the side of goodness, for he is a fierce slayer of wasps; the humble bee is a useful ally; and even ants should be protected, unless their nests become too numerous. Still better-behaved is the great family of the Ichneumon flies, which are so friendly as to lay their eggs in the bodies of our cabbage-grubs, and so cause them to perish. Some of the beetle tribe are with us, as the Golden Ground Beetle (*Carabus auratus*), which feeds upon the cockchafer, with such a terrible apparatus for seizing and tearing, that, compared with it, the fangs of the lion are small and feeble. All flesh-eating beetles should be protected. From henceforth let spiders flourish! Well known as friends of the garden, as they have long been, we hope no lady, when she reads—as every lady, no doubt, will—the clear statement in their favour given by Mr. Wood, will put any unlucky member of the “ugly” family to death, if she finds its wondrously-spun web upon her rose-trees, or across an *échillon* of her paling. Mr. Blackwell's late contribution to the publications of the Ray Society has done much to clear away the idea that the spider is a foe to the gardener.

Let us now call up our bird-friends. Owls, kestrel-hawks, and that most determined insect-hunter, the goatsucker, are on the right side; and, if the swallow tribe could be granted house-room under some eaves where the untidiness of their domestic arrangement would not offend a love of cleanliness, by all means protect and cherish them. The robin and the wren we can admit; but, when the thrush and the blackbird plead, in the sweetest of their song-notes, to be called friends by those in whose ears they pour their choicest music, we have to pause, for the decision is not an easy one to give. Market-gardeners care but little for songs, when the singer is robbing them; but we are inclined to ask whether the performer is not entitled to a small percentage of the fruit he has saved from the lingual teeth (28,000 in number!) of the snail? Still more nearly touching the

feelings of the agriculturist is the question whether the rook can be classed as a friend or a foe. True, that it scarifies the turf, and pecks away among the young corn; but for what? Even for the lives of the larvæ, which are silently cutting away at the tender rootlets, slowly consuming the plant, and thus blighting all the hopes of the husbandman. It is the instinct of the bird to seek out the unseen marauders; what cares he if corn-shoots of tenderest green are rooted up and tossed aside in the hurry of his search? The object of the bird is not to eat the grass, but the grub which destroys it; and the detection of grass-roots in its stomach no more proves it a plant-feeder than—to use an excellent simile of Mr. Wood's—the sawdust which clings to the beef-bone crunched and swallowed by the lion at the Zoological Gardens proves the animal to be a xylophagist.

Our best friend is probably the starling. A tower for starlings is one of the kindly-conceived and well-executed plans of Mr. Waterton, and the erection of such a building would speedily be followed by its occupancy. Year by year, the “little bird” group come flocking to our homestead and gardens, associated also with a controversy which, in a similar periodicity, crops out upon the surface of our social current. Can we not read an answer to all the evil accusations brought against them by the aid of the same natural light which, in the case of the rook, chased away all ideas of malicious depredation? What cares the finch or the sparrow for the young buds of your fruit-trees when on search for the grubs which lie concealed therein? Your obtuse senses would never detect the insidious miner eating his way to the daylight through the vitality of the bud. Had he completed his work, and gone through the changes prescribed by Nature, a hundred grubs would next season have represented, by a hundred biting and cutting energies, the one whose career of evil your friendly sparrow cut short. To those who are still sceptical, Mr. Wood recommends that, instead of a gun, a field-glass should be levelled at a feeding sparrow, for by its use he was able to determine that the gooseberry grubs and not the gooseberries were the objects of its search. But, alas! our friend of the garden is a foe to us in the field. No doubt that he is an eater of pea-shoots and of newly-sprung wheat-blades. Can it be that our agricultural necessities have vitiated his taste?

Righteously indignant, as a good man should be, is our author upon the existence of “bird-murder, as represented by the work of sparrow-clubs.” “Destroy the birds,” he exclaims, “our best friends, who fight for us against the destructive insect hosts!” But in the family of the finch there are some black sheep. Even Mr. Wood can say but little in favour of the bullfinch, or yet of the chaffinch. Tit-mice are among the best of “little birds,” though orchard-keepers hold yet to a contrary opinion, which observation has long shown to be worthless.

In all this amiable work our bird-friends have coadjutors among the reptilia and mammalia. The blind worm feeds upon slugs; and we have even a kindly word to say to the viper, “Inasmuch as thou art a mice-killer, go thy way, poor beastie; there is room enough in the world for thee and me!” Toads and frogs make themselves ready to battle with insect-kind as soon as eventide sets in; while hedgehogs, shrews, and weasels hold steady watch by day.

Now let our foes approach. First come the Rodentia, tinged with the blackest crimes, direful mischief-makers all, while even the mole, so beneficial in the field, is a distracting pest in a garden. Of the few birds which are ranged against us, we have already spoken; so we have only to summon the slugs, snails, woodlice, and insects. And truly they are the thorns in the flesh of the horticulturist. Certainly, snails eat earth-worms; but, alas! they eat strawberries as well; and what will not insects eat? It is a painful task to chronicle all their misdoings, from the ravages of cockchafers to the incessant suction which turns an aphid into a bottle of plant-juice.

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If we had not the friendly help of the birds we should combat with their tiny hosts to little purpose. We have too long refused belief in the quiet kindly aid of our allies; let us do so no longer.

Thus we briefly sketch the contents of the book. Mr. Wood stands in no need of praise; he has always done good work in a good way; and, as a thoughtful naturalist, it would be difficult to find his like among those who devote themselves to the popularization of the study. What Mr. Waterton is to the smaller circle of educated lovers of nature, Mr. Wood is to his thousands of readers, who are scattered over the land. No man is more to be envied than he who is enabled by position and acquirements to disseminate truth; and few make a better use of such opportunities than the Rev. J. G. Wood. G. E. R.

SCHOOL-BOOKS AND TEXT-BOOKS.

ARTICLE VI.:

SCHOOL-BOOKS ON GEOGRAPHY.

I.

- Modern Geography.* For the Use of Schools. By Robert Anderson, Normal Institution, Edinburgh. Sixth Edition. (Edinburgh: Nelson and Sons.)
- The Young Pupils' Easy Guide to Geography.* For the Use of Schools and Private Instructors. Re-arranged from Charles Butler's "Guide to Geography" by Edward Farr. (Dean and Son.)
- Elementary Geography.* By James Clyde, LL.D., one of the Classical Masters in the Edinburgh Academy. Seventh Thousand. (Edinburgh: Gordon.)
- A School Geography.* By James Cornwell, Ph.D., F.R.G.S. Thirty-third Edition. (Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.)
- The Elements of Geography.* On a New Plan. Edited by the Rev. B. G. Johns. (Darton and Hodge.)
- The Catechism of Geography.* For the Use of Junior Pupils in Mixed Schools. By John Lockhart, Burgh School, Kirkcaldy. (Edinburgh: A. and C. Black.)
- First Lessons in Geography, in Question and Answer.* By a Lady. Two Hundred and Fifteenth Thousand. (Jackson and Walford.)—*Ward's Illustrated Geography, in Question and Answer.* A Sequel to "First Lessons in Geography." Fourth Thousand.

II.

- A General Treatise on Geography.* (Chambers's "Educational Course.")
- School Geography.* By James Clyde, LL.D. (Edinburgh: Gordon.)
- A Pictorial Handbook of Modern Geography.* On a Popular Plan. Compiled from the best Authorities, English and Foreign, by Henry G. Bohn, F.R.A.S., F.R.G.S., &c. Second Edition. (H. G. Bohn.)
- A Manual of Geography, Physical, Industrial, and Political.* By William Hughes, F.R.G.S., Professor of Geography in Queen's College, London. New Edition. (Longman.)
- Manual of Modern Geography, Mathematical, Physical, and Political.* On a New Plan, embracing a Complete Development of the River Systems of the Globe. By the Rev. Alexander Mackay, A.M., F.R.G.S. (Edinburgh: Blackwood and Son.)

III.

- Geography of the British Empire.* By William Lawson, Diocesan Training School, Durham. (Edinburgh: Gordon.)
- The Geography of British History.* A Geographical Description of the British Islands at Successive Periods, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day: with a Sketch of the Commencement of Colonization on the Part of the English Nation. By William Hughes, F.R.G.S. (Longman.)
- Scripture Geography.* Being an Account of the more Important Countries and Places mentioned in Holy Scripture. By James Hewitt, F.R.G.S. (National Society for the Education of the Poor.)
- Physical Geography of England and Wales.—Physical Geography of British India.—The Geography of the British Colonies, in Five Parts.—Industrial and Commercial Geography; &c.* A Series of very small Books. By James Hewitt, F.R.G.S. (National Society.)

IV.

- The Earth and Man; or, Physical Geography in its relation to the History of Mankind.* Slightly abridged from the work of Arnold Guyot, with Corrections and a few Notes. Third Edition. (J. W. Parker and Son.)
- The Reason Why; Physical Geography and Geology.* Containing upwards of eleven hundred Reasons explanatory of the Physical Phenomena of the Earth, &c. By the Author of "The Reason Why, General Science," "The Historical Reason Why," &c. With numerous Illustrations. (Houlston and Wright.)
- The Physical Geography and Geology of Great Britain.* A Course of Six Lectures by Professor A. C. Ramsay, F.R.S., President of the Geological Society. (Stanford.)
- The Physical Geography of the Sea and its Meteorology.* By M. F. Maury, LL.D., U.S.N. Tenth Edition. (Sampson Low, Son, & Co.)
- The Scientific Class-Book, being Gradation IV. of the "Circle of Knowledge."* By Charles Baker. (Wertheim, Macintosh, & Co.)

GEOGRAPHY not many years ago was little better than a loose mass of information roughly sorted under the names of continents and countries. Those who wrote books on the subject, starting with some such

definition of the name as "a description of the earth," or "a description of the surface of the earth," were ready to throw into it almost any fact in natural history that came to hand. In the works on Geography of higher pretension it was usual to put at the commencement a sketch of Astronomy; and in the description of a country, a complete natural history of its minerals, plants, and animals was not regarded as out of place. The mistake was reflected and aggravated in the smaller books on the subject which were written for the use of schools.

We have not yet got practically clear of this confusion. But it is not now likely to be called in question, as a formal statement, that the true meaning of Geography is, *a description of the Earth considered as the abode of the human race.* The science thus finds its centre in man, as he is influenced by the terrestrial conditions in which he is placed by his Creator. It properly takes no cognisance of any fact in natural history which has not some evident connexion with the welfare of human creatures. With the classifications and theories of Mineralogy, Geology, Botany, Zoology, or Astronomy, it has nothing to do. But keeping this in view, a particular fact which may have before belonged exclusively to some one of those sciences may fall within the sphere of Geography, owing to some fresh discovery respecting its use, or to the progress of civilization. Coal, for instance, had it been applied to no use, would have had no scientific place except in Mineralogy and Geology. But, when Marco Polo, in the thirteenth century, found it in China, and described it as a black stone which the Chinese were in the habit of burning in their houses, its existence became an important fact in Geography. Had Humboldt merely described the Mauritius palm as one of the countless kinds of tree which grow in the valley of the Orinoco, something would have been added to our knowledge of Botany; but, when he tells us that the Guarani Indians owe shelter, bed, board, and clothing to that single tree, some account of it properly belongs to a geographical description of that part of the world—not, indeed, such a description as a botanist requires, but such as may enable us to understand the uses to which the different parts of the plant are put by the Guarani.

It follows that, in a work on Geography, the treatment of natural objects should be in accordance with their importance to the condition of man. If a mineral serves his purpose in any useful art, or if it forms (as in the case of the precious metals) an important element in the intercourse between man and man; if a plant furnishes him with food, or with materials for clothing or shelter, or if it exists in such quantities, and under such conditions, as to affect the climate of the place in which he dwells; or if a native animal serves him for burden or draft, or yields him food or clothing, or if it puts him or his property in danger by its destructive powers—a geographical description of the country in which it exists would not be complete without a notice of it.

It must, however, be admitted that, although the limitation of Geography as a science may thus be laid down, and should never be lost sight of, it is not always easy to draw a trenchant line to mark what should be excluded from a geographical description. Objects not known to possess any influence on the welfare of the inhabitants of the country in which they exist may be fairly entitled to a notice in consequence of their rare and striking character—such, for example, as the Giant's Causeway or the caves of Adelsberg. And, in regard to certain particulars in Astronomy, Meteorology, and other sciences, the line of strict geographical description may sometimes be exceeded out of regard to the probable ignorance of readers.

Geography, as a branch of education, has been by far more successfully cultivated in our National and Training Schools under inspection than in our Grammar Schools. A majority of the best elementary books on

the subject have been written by teachers who are engaged in national education. It has been the one subject in which the children of the poor have been better instructed than the children of the rich. Many of the true friends of education have been inclined to think that too much time and pains have been expended on it, more especially in our Training Schools. It is possible that the Inspectors may have indulged their own taste in giving a prominence to the subject beyond what it really deserves. But it cannot be doubted that it has a greater practical value for our poorer countrymen than it has for the poor of other countries. Our relations with distant parts of the world affect us all; but none have such a personal interest in what concerns emigration as our poor.

As to the right mode of teaching Geography, it appears to us that we may with advantage distinguish three stages of instruction, each having its own object in reference to the mind of the pupil, and its own mode of treating the subject-matter. In the first stage the aim should be to excite in the pupil a lively human interest in geographical facts, and so to work on his imagination as to give him a sense of the reality of men and women, boys and girls, living a great way off, who widely differ from himself in appearance and colour, who live in a different manner, and who are surrounded by different objects. To carry out this purpose in schools, wall-pictures and oral teaching would be better than books. What seems to us to be required is a series of thirty or forty pictures, boldly drawn and coloured, of sufficient size, representing such scenes as Laplanders with their reindeer, Arabs with their camels, Guarani in a grove of Mauritius palms, the canals of Venice, the rafts of Bankok, and the Bay of Naples. We are not aware that any series of the kind exists which is worthy of notice. For home use, several books and series of books have been published, more or less carrying out the same view. Our own childhood owed a debt of gratitude to Priscilla Wakefield's "Sketches of Human Manners" and to Mr. Taylor's "Scenes in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America," though the books were of an inferior stamp even in the day in which they were written, and are now out of print and almost forgotten. Peter Parley's books, at a later period, have done some service. They have more life in them than their predecessors; but in other respects their merit is not much greater. In whatever mode the instruction belonging to this stage is given, there should be no attempt to render it complete. The knowledge communicated by such means as we have indicated must necessarily be fragmentary. It is only necessary that it should be correct as far as it goes, and that it should be conveyed in the liveliest manner.

The second stage of geographical instruction might be called the catechetical stage. Its main object should be to teach the names and relative situations of the great divisions of the land and water, with the most important mountain-chains and rivers, and of the principal political divisions, with the chief towns. At the commencement of it, the child may have a few lessons on a terrestrial globe, to show him in a broad and simple way how portions of the surface of the earth are represented in maps. He may also be taught, by the comparison of a raised map of some rather mountainous region with a good engraved map of the same, to trace the connexion of the drainage of the land with its hills and mountains. In his subsequent studies, if he is well instructed, and supplied with good common maps, he will not require either a globe or raised maps.

It will be in this stage of his progress that the pupil will need a systematic book in which he should get up his lessons as he gets them up in learning the grammar of a language. The book should contain nothing which goes beyond the mind of an ordinary boy, and it should be as free as is consistent with methodical clearness from technical language. But it must possess a certain

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completeness, since a large proportion of learners will never go beyond it in the way of regular study. If the writer is at once a good geographer and a practised teacher, he may redeem his work from utter dryness; but, if it is to serve its proper purpose well, it cannot be made into an interesting reading-book. If it contains sketches of Mathematical and Physical Geography, or of Astronomy as connected with the earth, they are to be regarded rather as helps for the teacher than as lessons for the learner, and they should be placed at the end of the book, not at the beginning.

The books named in the first division of the list prefixed to this article are all calculated, with more or less success, to serve as text-books for the catechetical stage of geographical instruction. There is not one of them which quite comes up to our view of what a perfect school-book should be; but several of them have considerable merit. Of the smaller works, Mr. Johns's "Elements of Geography" appears to be marked by its accuracy, clearness, and careful selection of matter; but it is, perhaps, somewhat dry. Mr. Lockhart's "Catechism of Geography" is quaintly written in question and answer, and professes to comprise Modern and Ancient Geography in 150 small pages. "The Young Pupil's Easy Guide to Geography" is an old work, of some merit in its day, not very successfully modernized. Dr. Clyde's "Elementary Geography" contains a great deal of information, rather inconveniently compressed; and its pages have a repulsive aspect from the frequent recurrence of tabulated matter, which, we believe, is never acceptable to young readers. Among the books of a rather larger size, Dr. Cornwell's "School Geography" is evidently the work of a thoughtful, practical teacher; but it requires some corrections, and the introduction ought to be turned into a sequel. The same may be said, in the way of blame as well as of praise, of Anderson's "Modern Geography," which is more attractive in its appearance.

A few words will express all that we must now say respecting the third stage of geographical study. It belongs for the most part to those who are, or who are to become, teachers, and to those who have left school and desire to master the science for themselves. As a handbook for the use of such students, we can have no hesitation in recommending Mr. William Hughes's "Manual of Geography" as the best with which we are acquainted. The matter of it is well selected; its composition is methodical and terse; and it has a very convenient index. The subject of Mathematical Geography has been judiciously treated by the same author in a separate work. The "General Treatise on Geography," edited by Messrs. Chambers, is a smaller work than Mr. Hughes's "Manual," and has the advantage of "a pronouncing and etymological index," but not of an ordinary index. Mr. James Hewitt's series of little monographs and his "Scripture Geography" are excellent in their way, and bear marks of the skill of an experienced teacher. As an introduction to Physical Geography in its connexion with History, we know of no work so interesting and comprehensive as Guyot's "Earth and Man," although it has some grave faults. Professor Ramsay's "Lectures on the Physical Geography of Great Britain," Dr. Maury's "Physical Geography of the Sea," and Mr. W. Hughes's "Geography of British History" are books which no advanced student of Geography should fail to peruse. Mr. Bohn's "Pictorial Handbook of Modern Geography" scarcely comes within the scope of this article; it is rather a useful book of reference than an educational manual.

NOTICES.

Narrative of a Captivity, Escape, and Adventures in France and Flanders during the War. By Edward Boys, Captain R.N., when a Midshipman of his Majesty's ship "Phæbe." (T. C. Newby. Pp. 333.)—THE adventures of Captain Boys extend

from 1803, when the war with France was renewed, to 1809. "The narrative," he tells us, "was written in the West Indies, in 1810, at the previous suggestion, and for the sole amusement, of my own family. With the view of leaving my children a memento of their father's juvenile adventures, I have since revised it, and formed the idea of committing it to the press, should more competent judges not deem such a course presumptuous." The earlier part of the volume is rather prolix; but, as the reader proceeds, the interest increases, and becomes by-and-by exciting. The gallant captain very wisely abstains from anything that might be called fine writing; but he is not to be supposed on that account destitute of all literary art. Many of his scenes are highly picturesque; and the various interviews with Madame Derikre—especially the last, when the warm-hearted creature has become old, penniless, and blind—are quite dramatic in their effect. We have, moreover, some capital glimpses of French military administration during the Empire, of the manner in which the French coast and its dependencies were guarded, and of the great straits Napoleon was put to in order to raise from an unwilling population both sailors and conscripts.

The New Gospel of Peace according to St. Benjamin. (Manchester: Abel Heywood; London: Bacon & Co. Pp. 42.)—FROM the days of the Stuarts, downwards, it has been no uncommon practice, when party politics ran high, for each party to expose the shortcomings and transgressions of the other in language modelled upon that of the sacred narrative; and the closer the imitation, the greater the success, it was thought, of the writer. Those who used this style, moreover, had not only the advantage of gibbeting their enemies, but also the privilege of nudging their friends and pricking them on to action. After such a type is the present squib written; although, in the interests of the North, the Anti-Slavery party is not allowed to go altogether scatheless. Take, for instance, the first four verses of Chapter VI., in which the President, physically and morally, is hit off in a dash or two. Verse 1. "Now Abraham was honest; but he was not wise in his generation. 2. Likewise, also, of the chief-counsellors that he appointed, that one that was counsellor for the war brought only mischief and confusion; even so that Abraham, who was long-suffering and slow to anger, would sometimes put down his foot in wrath. 3. Now Abraham's foot was heavy, but his head was light, and his knees were feeble. So his foot came down in the wrong place, or at the wrong time; or else it continued not down until the end was accomplished. 4. Wherefore he prevailed not. And he was called Abraham the well-meaning. And men pitied him." The origin of the war is explained in the third chapter, some of the verses of which are rather happy, in their profane kind—verses 19 and 26 for instance:—"But the men of the South said, We will not let our Niggahs go free, for they are our chattels, even as our horses and our sheep, our swine and our oxen; and we will beat them, and slay them, and sell them, and no man shall gainsay us. We stand by the Great Covenant." Verse 19: "Moreover, we are Tshivulree." And "the Dimmichrats and the Pahdees joined themselves to the Tshivulree; and the Tshivulree of the South, and the men of the North, which called themselves Dimmichrats, and the Pahdees ruled the land of Unculpsalm for many years; and they divided the spoil. And they had but one thought, even for the Niggah." Verse 26: "Wherefore he was called the everlasting Niggah."

Teetotal Publications.—MR. PARTRIDGE has sent us: 1. *The Brewer's Family; or, the Experiences of Charles Crawford.* By Mrs. Ellis, author of "Women of England," &c., a well-written tale of the joys and fears of a loving mother, watching over the wayward younger son of the family. His boyhood had been one of trust in her care and counsels; but, led into temptation as manhood approached, he fell into intemperate habits, from which he is rescued by the recollection of that early maternal love and care, and emigrates to Australia. He has promised his mother solemnly to amend; and he undergoes a self-imposed probation of five years, after which he returns to receive his mother's blessing, "a total abstinence now, and a wiser and a better man." The book is nicely printed, illustrated with eight plates, and prettily bound.—2. *What Put my Pipe Out; or, Incidents in the Life of a Clergyman;* with five illustrations by George Cruikshank. A very wishy-washy attempt, indeed, to put the pipe out, but containing some interesting facts and statistics connected with the history of tobacco, and the spread of smoking, and a recapitulation of the trite arguments against the use of tobacco

which appeared in the *Lancet* some years ago.—3. *Nancy Whimble, the Gossip, and How she was Cured: a Story of Village Life.* By T. S. Arthur, the popular American author on domestic subjects, whose writings have a very large circulation on the other side of the Atlantic.—4. *The Haunted House.* By Eliza S. Oldham, with four illustrations. A picture of drunkenness, and its consequences to the drunkard and those who should be dear to him.—And 5. A very nicely got-up edition, with Gilbert's clever illustrations, of the popular temperance historiette, *Buy Your Own Cherries*, by John W. Kirton, which appeared in the *British Workman* during last July.

Romanizing in Music. From the *Musical Standard.* (11 and 20, Paternoster Row. Pp. 8.)—THE tone of this clever brochure may be gathered from the following:—"First, a paltry candle is placed, with a mean semblance of utility, upon the altar; then the chants are modified—again with the plea of usefulness—upon the Gregorian plan. At first, of course, a tunable relic is selected from the dust of ages, which is lauded, reiterated, and adopted as a stock-piece, soon to be followed by a crude train of imperfections. One thing strikes us as being very inexplicable: while the Romanizers of our Church are doing their utmost to depreciate music, and thus render it distasteful, the Catholic Church itself is keenly alive to the charms of musical excellence. What can surpass the grandeur, the beauty, and variety of Mozart and Haydn, Hummel and Beethoven, in their compositions for the Mass? Why do not our Romish clergy give us some of these glorious pieces? It is not Gregorian music that these Romanizing parsons care for in reality; they regard it as part and parcel of the formula which involves the Censer, the Host, and the Confessional in its soul-enslaving fascination."

The Southern Monthly Magazine. (Auckland: R. J. Creighton and A. Scales.)—THIS is the fifth number of the New Zealand magazine, whose appearance we have already mentioned and welcomed. In literary merit it seems equal to most of its colonial brethren; and, from the nature of a large portion of its contents, the publication affords valuable reading to the intending emigrant. "Waitara and the Native Question," for instance, "On Maori Courage," "Out-buildings and Kitchen Gardens," and "A Landed Aristocracy for Northern New Zealand," are all treated ably and sensibly. It is true the last-named is called by the author "A Day Dream;" but it appears to us a dream which any monied younger son, with brains as well as a pedigree, might very soon realize for himself to the very letter. Of lighter articles we have sundry very readable poems; "A Monthly Literary Review," containing some pertinent remarks on a few of our own literary dons; a tale called "What Became of Him?" in six chapters, and "The Consequences of a Day with the Harriers" in four. We wish the *Southern Monthly* every success.

History of the Plague of London (1665). By Daniel Defoe. (Longman, Green, & Co. Pp. 206.)—THIS reprint of the inimitable narrative of Defoe has been edited by J. S. Laurie, and forms one of a series called the "Entertaining Library." The great object sought in this series is to "provide the young, and, generally speaking, the less educated portion of the community, with books which they will find readable," or, in other words, with books which will furnish pleasure and amusement. We attach considerable importance to the following short paragraph in the preface:—"Special attention will be paid to the binding of the volumes. They will be prepared for being well thumbed. The type, also, in which they will be printed will be of the clearest and most distinct kind that can be procured." In the volume before us the publishers have fulfilled their promises; and the illustrations are of a kind which would do no discredit to a much more pretentious publication. One or two of them, indeed, are after the manner of Gustave Doré, and not altogether unworthy of his spirit.

Handbook to the Calculator and Letter-Box. By J. S. Laurie, Editor of the "Graduated Series" and "Standard Series" of Reading Books, &c. (Longman, Green, & Co. Pp. 16.)—IN the previous work J. S. Laurie is the careful editor; in the little "handbook" before us he is the not less indefatigable author. His system follows more that of De Morgan than of Colenso; and, if it is perfectly mastered by the teacher, the pupil will soon gain a clear and definite conception of the science of arithmetic. Mr. Laurie very truly says in his preface that "the object of imparting concrete conceptions of numbers is imperfectly answered by the ball-frame or abacus, of which the chief merit is its remarkable convenience."

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He obviates this by employing the counters in irregular groups. "On the other hand," he says, "for the purpose of communicating a knowledge of notational value, the partitioned side of the lid is required to be used along with the counters;" and, although he describes at some length the method, it is clearly developed in the exercises.

Kaufmännische Carriren. Wahrheit und Dichtung aus dem Geschäftsleben. Von Gustav Höcker (Dresden: Kuntze.)—THIS is one of the innumerable imitations of Gustav Freitag's commercial novel which have flooded the now "practical" Germany. We in England have never been able to understand what made Freitag's cleverly-written, but uncommonly absurd glorification of trade in rather a small way, go down in such a manner. In fact, the three English translations of it, which appeared almost simultaneously, were all failures. The political state of Germany, and the utter want of any German novel (under nine stout octavos) fit for human reading, are the only explanation we can find for this startling phenomenon. Of the imitation before us we cannot say much either. It labours under the shortcomings of its original, without its small advantages. The author is not, however, without a certain degree of talent. "The firm which wished to get married" is a clever little sketch in its way, and the characters of the two partners, Druck and Leidlich, are not badly drawn. The saddest part of the book is a tale called "So geht's; ein Still-leben"—the old story of a poor lonely clerk's dreary life and miserable end. What on earth can make a writer choose and spin out a theme like this, grey in grey, without a single atom of hope or light, is more than we can comprehend. We can only recommend it as fit reading for the ensuing November season.

C. F. Göschel, Vorträge und Studien über Dante Alighieri. (Berlin: Herz.)—FOUR essays, collected and edited after the author's death by his friends, form the bulk of the present contributions to the great Dante-literature. They are entitled, respectively, "Dante Alighieri's Visions in the Terrestrial Paradise on Easter-Day 1300;" "Daniel and Dante; or, the Eagle and the Lark, and the Rest in the End;" "The last Song of Paradise in the highest Height of the Empyrean, or the last Leaf of the Centifolia;" "Linus." The first paper forms a running commentary to cantos 28—33 of the "Purgatorio;" the second is a parallel between Daniel and Dante; the third is a commentary on the last canto of the "Paradiso;" and the fourth is an Essay on the Signification of Linus, in "Inf." iv. 140, 141. It will be seen from the contents that it was chiefly those parts of the poem that allow of the widest application of mystical allegory which attracted our author; and, although there is no lack of sterling original thought, and of lucid and clear conception in some portions, we yet cannot but confess that phantasies and transcendentalisms form the rule in this book. It may thus, on the whole, be interesting enough to individual mystical admirers of the great poet, but it certainly is of but small value for the elucidation of the subject itself.

Geschichte des L'Hombre. By Dr. Gustav Schwetschke. (Halle: Schwetschke.)—L'HOMBRE is a favourite game of cards in Germany to this day, while we in this country have nearly forgotten its very name. Born in Spain, honoured by the name of a "royal game" in France, adored by Lessing, its history has until now been neglected in a most shameful manner. Dr. Schwetschke has now taken it up, and has with such German thoroughness gone into it that we doubt whether any one will ever come after him. It certainly was a meritorious task, provided the author found no better one; and all the old ladies who read his book will, we are sure, be grateful to him. There is a good deal of chat in it, and the author also displays a certain amount of good humour which will assist any other stray reader eager for L'Hombre information in mastering its contents, if such be his intention.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK.

- AIMARD (Gustave). Stronghand; or, the Noble Revenge. A Tale of the Disinherited. Two Volumes. Cr. 8vo. J. Maxwell. 21s.
- BRAMINI PILASA OF PANDITA JAGANNATH. Edited in Sanskrit by Pandit Jadu Nath Tarkaratna. 8vo., sd. Calcutta. 3s.
- BOLTON (Rev. James). Shilling Packet of Reward Books for Children. 18mo. Macintosh. 1s.
- BUNYAN (John). Pilgrim's Progress. Illustrated New Edition. 8vo. Griffin. 5s.
- BURNS (Robert) Poems. (Bell and Daldy's Pocket Volumes.) 18mo. Bell and Daldy. 8d. 2s. 6d.; cl. 3s.; hlf. bd. 3s. 6d.

CRAIK (Rev. Henry). New Testament. Church Order. Five Lectures. Cr. 8vo. Bristol: Mack. Snow. 8d. 9d.; cl. 1s. 6d.

CRAIK (Rev. Henry). Principia Hebraica: or, an Easy Introduction to the Hebrew Language; exhibiting in Twenty-four Tables the Interpretation of all the Hebrew and Chaldee Words, both Primitives and Derivatives, contained in the Old Testament Scriptures. Folio. Bristol: Mack. Bagster. 10s. 6d.

DENTON (Rev. W., M.A.) Commentary on the Gospels, for the Sundays and other Holy Days of the Christian Year. Seventeenth Sunday after Trinity to Advent and other Holy Days. 8vo. Bell and Daldy. 13s.

EDGAR (Rev. James Pitt.) Sermons. 12mo. Edinburgh: Nimmo. 2s.

FAIRBAIRN (Wm.) Treatise on Mills and Millwork. Part 2. On Machinery of Transmission and the Construction and Arrangement of Mills. 8vo. Longman. 16s.

GREY (Mrs.) Good Society; or Contrasts of Character. Three Volumes. Post 8vo. Hurst and Blackett. 31s. 6d.

HAWTHORNE (Nathaniel). Our Old Home. Two Vols. Cr. 8vo. Smith and Elder. 21s.

HOBUSH (Reverend Alfred) and his Curacies. A Memoir. By the Author of "Roman Candles," &c. Cr. 8vo. J. Maxwell. 10s. 6d.

HOOD (Thomas). Disputed Inheritance: the Story of a Cornish Family. Second Edition. Cr. 8vo. Low. 10s. 6d.

HUTCHISON (William Antony). Loreto and Nazareth. Two Lectures containing the Results of Personal Investigation of the two Sanctuaries. With plans and illustrations. Imp. 8vo. Dillon. 4s.

IMPERIAL DICTIONARY (The) of Universal Biography. A Series of Original Memoirs of Distinguished Men of all Ages and all Nations. By Writers of Eminence in the various branches of Literature, Science, and Art. Conducted by John Eadie, D.D.; John F. Waller, Esq., LL.D.; W. J. M. Rankine, Esq., LL.D.; Edwin Lankester, Esq., M.D.; Francis Bowen, M.A. Illustrated by a Series of Portraits. Five Volumes. Imp. 8vo. Mackenzie. £5. 10s.

KINGLAKE (A. W.) Invasion of the Crimea; its Origin, and an Account of its Progress down to the Death of Lord Raglan. Fourth Edition. Vols. 1 and 2. 8vo. Blackwoods. 32s.

LOUDON (J. C., F.L.S.) Encyclopædia of Cottage, Farm, and Villa Architecture and Furniture. Containing Numerous Designs for Dwellings, &c., &c. New Edition. 8vo. Longman. 42s.

MAGNEOPATHY THE PHILOSOPHY OF HEALTH. 8vo. sd. Bentley. 1s.

MARK CHURCHILL; or, the Boy in Earnest. By the Author of "Johnny Weston," &c. 18mo. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. 2s.

MEDITATIONS OF LIFE AND ITS RELIGIOUS DUTIES. Translated from the German by Frederica Rowan. New Edition. Cr. 8vo. Trübner. 6s.

MONTGOMERY (Rev. Robert, M.A.) Lyra Christiana. New Edition. 32mo. Houlston. 1s. 6d.

MONSELL (John S. B., LL.D.) Parish Musings; or, Devotional Poems. New Edition. 18mo. Rivingtons. 8d. 1s.; cl. sd. 1s. 6d. Fine Edition. Fcap. 8vo., 2s. 6d.

MURPHY (Wm.) Historical and Statistical School Atlas. Consisting of twenty-five Maps from the latest and best Authorities. 4to., hlf. bd. Edinburgh: Menzies. 2s. 6d.

OKE (George C.) Handy Book of the Game and Fishery Laws; containing the whole Law as to Game, Licences, and Certificates, &c., &c. New Edition. Cr. 8vo. Butterworths. 10s. 6d.

PINNOCK (Rev. W. H.) Rubrics for Communicants, explanatory of the Holy Communion Office; with Prayers, Aids to Examination, and Scripture Illustrations to be used in Churches. 18mo., cl., sd. Cambridge: Hall and Son. 1s. 6d.

ROYAL HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY. Book of. Society. 31s. 6d.

SACRED LYRE (The); Poems, Devotional, Moral, and Preceptive. 32mo. Griffin. 2s.

SALA (George Augustus). Breakfast in Bed; or, Philosophy between the Sheets. A Series of Indigestible Discourses. Cr. 8vo. J. Maxwell. 10s. 6d.

SANDERSON (C.) Battles of England; showing the Cause, Conduct, and Issue of every Battle since the Conquest. Compiled expressly for the Use of Schools. Bradbury. 1s. 6d.

THOMAS (Lynall). Rifled Ordnance: a Practical Treatise on the Application of the Principle of the Rifle to Guns and Mortars of every Calibre. 8vo. W. Mitchell. 8s.

WOOD (Rev. J. G.) Our Garden Friends and Foes. Cr. 8vo. Routledge. 7s. 6d.

WORBOISE (Emma Jane). Married Life; or, the Story of Philip and Edith. Fcap. 8vo. Christian World Office. 3s.

WORDSWORTH (Chr., D.D.) Journal of a Tour in Italy, with Reflections on the Present Condition and Prospects of Religion in that Country. Second Edition. Two Vols. Cr. 8vo. Rivingtons. 15s.

JUST READY.

BOJESSEN (Mrs. M.) Guide to the Danish Language. 12mo. Trübner. 5s.

BRUCE (Rev. H., LL.D.) Handbook to Newcastle-on-Tyne. Post 8vo. Longman. 5s.

CATHERINE II. Memoirs of. Translated from the French. New Issue. Cr. 8vo. Trübner. 2s.

COLTON'S GENERAL ATLAS. 180 Maps. Imp. fol. Bacon. £4. 4s.

CORNELIA. A Novel. New Issue. Cr. 8vo. Trübner. 1s. 6d.

DOUGALL (John, A.M.) Self-Instructor; or, Young Man's Companion. Milner. 4s.

GIANT SHOW (The); or, the Adventures of Benjamin McLammund, Esq. Obg. 8vo. Bosworth. 5s.

HEARTS IN MORTMAIN. A Novel. New Issue. Cr. 8vo. Trübner. 1s. 6d.

HORTON (Richard). Table showing the Solidity of Hewn or Eight-sided Timber, &c. Cr. 8vo. Weale. 2s. 6d.

HOLME (Rev. C., M.A.) Annotations on the Gospel of St. Mark. With Introduction, &c. Longman. 2s.

JAMES'S NOVELS. The Woodman. New Edition. Fcap. 8vo. Routledge. 1s.

LAURIE (J. S.) Handbook to the Calculator and Letter-Box. 12mo., cl. lp. Longman. 4d.

LAURIE'S CALCULATOR AND READING BOX. Longman. 15s. 6d.

PAGE FROM THE PEERAGE. By the Author of "The Colonel." Two Volumes. Post 8vo. Newby. 21s.

PEDLEY (Rev. Charles). History of Newfoundland, from the Earliest Times to 1860. 8vo. Longman. 15s.

PRACTICAL STATUTES OF THE SESSION 1863. Edited by W. Paterson, Esq. 12mo. Law Times Office. 10s. 6d.

RHIND (A. H.) Fac-similes of Two Papyri found in a Tomb at Thebes. With Translation. Obg. folio. Longman. £2. 2s.

ROUTLEDGE'S EVERY BOY'S ANNUAL FOR 1864. Edited by Edmund Routledge. Illustrated. Cr. 8vo. Routledge. 6s.

RICHARDSON (Thomas, Ph.D.), and WATTS (Henry, B.A.) Chemical Technology. Volume 1. Part 3. Second Edition. 8vo. Bailliere. 33s.

WHITEHEAD (Henry, M.A.) Sermons on Saints' Days, preached in Clapham Parish Church. Cr. 8vo. Bosworth. 6s.

MISCELLANEA.

THE following are to be among the papers read at the Social Science meeting in Edinburgh, which opens on the 7th of October:—In the Jurisprudence Department there will be a paper by Mr. R. R. Torrens, Registrar-General of South Australia, on "The Torrens System of Conveyancing by Registration of Titles, as in operation in Australia;" and one by Mr. Thomas Hare, being a draft of a "Bill to facilitate the acquirement of House Property by the Working Classes in large Towns." The subject of Marriage Laws is to be discussed in this department. In the Department of Education there is to be a paper by Professor Milligan of Aberdeen on "The Parish School-System of Scotland;" also one by Dr. Lees of St. Andrews on "The Scottish University System," and one by the Rev. J. P. Norris on "The Inspection of Middle Schools by the University of Cambridge." In this department also interesting discussions are arranged. In the Reformatory Department the Right Hon. C. B. Adderley, M.P., will read a paper "On the Reports of the Commissioners on Penal Servitude and Prison Discipline." Questions of temperance and of public-house licensing will come into this department. In the Public Health Department a paper on "The Sanitary Statistics of Colonial Native Schools and Hospitals," and another on "The Army in India," will be contributed by Miss Florence Nightingale; and among the other papers we note as likely to be of special interest one by Professor Christison on "The Changes that have occurred in the Type of Disease in Edinburgh during the last Fifty Years." For the Department of Social Economy nearly fifty papers have already been given in. Emigration and the Poor Laws are among the leading subjects; and on the latter we note a paper by Mr. Edwin Chadwick on "The Results of the Chief Principles of the Poor Law Administration in England and Ireland as compared with Scotland." Lancashire Distress and the progress of the Co-operative Principle are also among the subjects in the same department. Finally, in the Department of Trade and International Law many subjects are down for discussion, including that of an International Decimal System.

THE remains of King John's Palace at Old Ford, Bow, converted into a lucifer-match manufactory recently, were destroyed by fire on Wednesday morning. The few relics of Old London are sadly neglected.

WE have to record the death of Mr. Charles Robert Cockerell, R.A., and Emeritus Professor of Architecture at the Royal Academy, on Thursday last, the 17th inst., in his 76th year, at his residence in Chester Terrace, Regent's Park. Mr. Cockerell was an elegant scholar and able critic, and his contributions to the higher class

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periodicals have all that strongly marked characteristic of style which gave strength and power to the early numbers of the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly Reviews*. In 1811-12, after several repeated visits to the East, to Italy and Sicily, to study Greek and Roman Architecture among the ruins of the temples of the ancients, in conjunction with Baron Haller and others, he superintended the excavations of the Temple of Jupiter at Ægina, the chief remains of which are now preserved in the Museum at Munich, and of the Temple of Apollo at Phygaleia, whence the Phygaleian marbles in the British Museum. As early as 1814 he commenced writing an account of these discoveries to accompany a series of engravings of the elaborate drawings he had made on the spot; but, fastidious to a degree seldom equalled, he put off the publication till some three years ago, when he published his account of these celebrated edifices. His strong predilections were thus early formed in favour of Greek and Roman architecture, which he considered most appropriate for the state of civilization of the nineteenth century. His opposition to the reintroduction of early English and Gothic architecture arose from sincere conviction; for he had not only studied the best models, and designed buildings in the latter, but his "Iconography of Wells Cathedral," the sculptures upon the west front of which he always pointed out as the most perfect and beautiful of the period in Europe, his "Sculpture of Lincoln Cathedral," and his "Architectural Life of Wykeham" in the "Transactions of the Archaeological Institute," show how well he knew to appreciate what is beautiful in the Gothic. Associate in 1829, Royal Academician in 1836, on the death of Wilkins in 1840 he was elected Emeritus Professor; and his lectures prove him to have fully merited the place he held amongst British architects. Upon the death of Sir John Soane, he became architect to the Bank of England. He built the Sun Fire Office, Hanover Chapel, Regent Street, and several other edifices in London; the Taylor and Randolph Buildings and the new Public Library at Oxford; the Gothic Chapel and Speech-Room at Harrow; the Gothic College at Lampeter; and the Philosophical Institution at Bristol. Mr. Cockerell was as greatly esteemed abroad as at home. Oxford made him a D.C.L.; Paris, in 1841, one of the eight "associés étrangers" of the Academy; Rome, two years later, one of the ten "members of merit" of St. Luke's; whilst Munich, Berlin, and Berne accorded to him the honorary membership of their academies. In 1843 the Institute of British Architecture awarded to him its first gold medal. In conjunction with Mr. J. S. Harford, of Blaise Castle, Mr. Cockerell published in 1857 "Descriptions to Michael Angelo." A great admirer of the genius of Sir Christopher Wren, whose London churches he grouped into one plate some years ago, Mr. Cockerell, when consulted, approved of the present alterations and decorations of St. Paul's—all of which, however, have emanated from Mr. F. C. Penrose, the Cathedral Architect; and on Thursday last his remains were most appropriately deposited in the vaults of that cathedral.

DR. ALEXANDER HENDERSON, author of the "History of Ancient and Modern Wines," published in quarto in 1824, and of several other works, died at Caskieben, Aberdeenshire, on Wednesday last, aged eighty-three.

On Sunday last, the 20th instant died, at his residence in Russell Square, in the eighty-sixth year of his age, Mr. William Tooke, F.R.S., President of the Society of Arts. Mr. Tooke was born at St. Petersburg in 1777, and was the younger son of the Rev. W. Tooke, chaplain to the English Factory in that city, who wrote the "Life of Catherine the Second," a "View of the Russian Empire," and a "History of Russia," all books of considerable reputation in their day, and still valuable to the student of Russian history. Mr. Tooke edited Churchill's works in 1804, without his name; but, upon Mr. Pickering reprinting it in his series of "Aldine Poets" in 1844, he put his name to it as editor. He was treasurer and one of the active founders of the Society for Promoting Useful Knowledge. His best-known work is "The Monarchy of France; its Rise, Progress, and Fall." He represented Truro in Parliament from 1835 to 1837.

ALL who love the memory of Gilbert White will be glad to hear that the only sermon he left behind him—one, perhaps, preached more than once in his pretty Selborne—is printed for the first time in the last number of the *Journal of Sacred Literature*. It was written in 1748, when the Natural Historian was only twenty-eight years old, and preached, seemingly, for the last time in

1792, only eight months before his death. The text is 1 John, iv. 20, "He that says he loves God, but hateth his brother, is a liar, for, if he loves not his brother whom he hath seen, how can he love God, whom he hath not seen?" Surely a fitting subject for him to preach on who, by his sunny nature and loving notes, has taught so many that

He prayeth well who loveth well
Both man, and bird, and beast;
He prayeth best who loveth best
All things, both great and small;
For the dear God who loveth us
He made and loveth all.

The sermon is communicated by the grand-nephew of the writer, the Rev. F. Gilbert White, of Barn-gill House, Whitehaven, who, if we may judge from his photograph, as, glass in hand, he examines a flower, is a worthy descendant, in temper and pursuits, of his ancestor of Selborne.

MR. POCOCK is engaged in editing for the Oxford Clarendon Press a new edition of Burnet's "History of the Reformation," verifying the documents given by Burnet by careful collation with the originals wherever they are known to exist. Several thousand errors, which have been perpetuated from the original publication to the present time, have been corrected. As an instance:—One letter of Bullinger, as given by Burnet, is found to contain no less than 400 divergences from the original—many only changes of punctuation and the like, but others very important. The text of the history will appear exactly as the author left it: errors of date, which are numerous, will be corrected in the margin, and a large body of references to printed books and MSS. from which Burnet, without special acknowledgment, probably drew his information, will be added. Altogether it is hoped that this edition will be a not inconsiderable addition to the accurate knowledge of this important period of English history.

MR. KINGLAKE'S "History of the Invasion of the Crimea" has been reprinted in a cheap form by Baron Tauchnitz at Leipzig, who has also published a German translation of the work. A Modern-Greek translation has also appeared, and a French version is in the press at Brussels.

MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co. have in the press "St. Paul's Epistle to the Galatians"—the Greek text revised, with introduction and notes, by Prof. Joseph B. Lightfoot of Cambridge; and also "The Bible in the Church, a Popular Account of the Reception of the Sacred Books in the Christian Church," by Mr. Brooke Foss Westcott.

MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT have just ready a new novel in three volumes, entitled "Florian's Husband;" Messrs. Blackwood will publish on the 10th of October "Tara: a Mahratta Tale," by Captain Meadows Taylor, in three volumes; and Mr. Maxwell will publish next week Mr. C. J. Collins's sporting novel, "Sackville Chase."

MR. PARTRIDGE has two little illustrated tales on the eve of publication: "The Village Club, and What became of It," by Mrs. Balfour; and "Rainy Days, and How to Meet Them," by Mrs. Marshall.

THE Baron Tauchnitz has just added to his "Collection of British Authors" "Eleanor's Victory," by Miss Braddon, two vols.

AMONGST translations from English into German which are to be in readiness for the approaching Leipzig Fair, are: Charles Lever's "Davenport Dunn," Miss Yonge's "Hopes and Fears; or, Scenes from the Life of an Old Maid," and three volumes of Mr. Spurgeon's Sermons.

AN English version of Renan's "Vie de Jésus" is announced in our advertising columns as in preparation under the author's own revision.

A CORRESPONDENT asks if any of our scientific friends can account for the phenomenon recently remarked of regular tides in the lakes of Geneva and Neuchâtel.

MR. HEYWOOD of Manchester has issued a prospectus of a "Memorial Edition of Shakespeare," to be called the "Reference Shakespeare," a "self-interpretative" edition, on the plan of the "Reference Bible." The editor is Mr. John B. Marsh, the author of "Sayings from Shakespeare."

IN February last Australia added to her literature a *Medical and Surgical Review*, published monthly, the fourth number of which has just reached this country.

"MAHOE LEAVES" is the name of a little book, published in New Zealand, giving an account of the present condition of the Maori race, and preserving for the future historian sketches of manners and customs yet in full force amongst the natives, but which are still unknown to the great mass of the settlers.

BEN JONSON'S works are being translated into French by E. Lafond.

"THE Dark Houses of London" is the title of a forthcoming volume by G. Rasch, the author of "Garibaldi, the Sword of Italy." It is to be a pendant to the "Dark Houses of Berlin," and will contain sketches of Bedlam, Newgate, Millbank, the Tower-prisons, &c.

THE death of the Count de Vigny, in his sixty-fifth year, took place last week at Paris. Alfred Victor de Vigny, member of the Academy, and one of the most celebrated writers of the day, was one of the body guard of Louis XVIII., at Ghent, during the "hundred days." As early as 1815 appeared "Dryade et Symeta," his first poetical effusion, and in 1822 he published a volume of poems, including "Helena" and "La Sonnambula," which was followed in 1824-5 by "Moses," and others of the same stamp; but it was not till 1826, upon the appearance of his "Cinq Mars," that he assumed the high rank he has since continued to hold amongst the writers of France. In 1829 he produced "Othello;" in 1830, "La Marechale d'Amore;" in 1832, "Stello;" and the suite to it, "Chatterton," in 1835. Some of his best poems appeared in the *Revue des Deux-Mondes*. In the *Journal des Débats* of Saturday last a touching tribute is paid to his memory by Louis Ratisbonne.

M. CHARLES EXPILLY, author of "Le Brésil tel qu'il est," has in the press, to appear on the 3rd of October, "Les Femmes et les Mœurs de Brésil."

M. ERNEST HAVET's article on Renan's "Vie de Jésus," reprinted from the *Revue des Deux-Mondes* with a preface, is just published at Paris under the title, "Jésus dans l'Histoire, Examen de la 'Vie de Jésus' de M. Renan," and has called forth, from the pen of the Bishop of Nîmes, "Un Panégyriste de M. Renan; Lettre Pastorale contre un Article de la *Revue des Deux-Mondes* par Ernest Havet."

NOVELTIES in the French drama are: "Les Coups d'Épingle," by Ernest Capendu, and "La Mère de la Débutante," by an unknown author.

THE following new French novels are announced: by G. Sand, "Mlle. de Quintine," reprinted from the *Feuilleton* of the *Indépendance Belge*; by P. de Kock, "La Fille aux Trois Jupons;" and "A Cycle of Three Tales," by the renowned author of "Fanny," M. Feydeau—respectively called: "Un Début à l'Opéra," "M. de Saint Bertrand," and "Le Mari de la Danseuse." Besides these the following, some of a strong sensational character, are also forthcoming: "Les Enfants de l'Amour," by E. Sue; "Les Mystères du Palais-Royal," by Georges de Rieux (Xavier de Mont-épin), with engravings by Delaville and Hildibrand, after drawings by J. A. Beaucé and Andrieux; "Les Amours d'Artagnan," by A. Blanquet; "Les Cavaliers de la Nuit," by Ponson du Terrail; "Monsieur Cherami," by Ch. Paul de Kock; "Les Amours Vulgaires," by A. Vermorel; "Les Secrets d'une Jeune Fille," by the Countess of Passanville.

"FIOR D'ALIZA" is the title of the fourth part of Lamartine's "Confidences," just published. It is a mournful tale, and nothing but his sad fate can explain his congratulating himself in it on having lost his children in their early youth.

COUNT WALEWSKI is occupying his involuntary leisure in writing a "History of Poland," for which he will make use of many hitherto unknown documents and other papers. It will, of course, be ultra-Polish in its tendency.

"COMMENT la Russie et la Perse peuvent anéantir l'Influence Anglaise en Asie" is the latest pamphlet on the favourite subject of "England in the East."

THE following special Swiss travelling-guides and maps have appeared in German:—A new travelling map of Switzerland by C. Weychardt, with four special maps of Appenzell and the Bregenz Wood, of the Rigi and the Vierwaldstätter-See, the Wengernalp and the Haslithal, and of Mont Blanc, together with the Chamouni-Valley. Further, a map, by J. W. Mangold, of Canton Graubünden; a fifth edition of Tschudis's justly celebrated "Swiss Guide;" the "Bündner Oberland; or, the Upper Rhine with its Side-valleys," by Professor Theobald; and, by Dr. Simler, "A Description of the Mountains between Glarus and Graubünden."

THE celebrated Jacob Grimm, brother of the no less celebrated William Grimm, whom he survived, died at Berlin on Sunday last in his 79th year. Since the death of his brother he had sought comparative retirement, devoting himself almost entirely to the compilation of his "German Dictionary," which in print has only reached to the word *Fromm*. Ample materials, it is said, have been left by the deceased to render its completion comparatively an easy task.

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"RAHEL; or, Thirty Years of a Woman's Noble Life," is the translation of the title of Dianitzka's new German novel, of which Rahel Levin, the wife of Varnhagen von Ense, is the heroine, and which is to introduce the Schlegels, Goethe, Richter, Bettina, Madame de Staël, &c., to the reader.

JULIUS BACHER's new historical tale is to be called "Ein Urtheilsspruch Washingtons," and is founded on an incident in the War of Independence.

MR. WIGAND of Leipzig announces a translation of Renan's "Vie de Jésus," which M. Renan himself wishes to be considered the only one that he approves.

THE fourth and fifth volumes of Dr. Lubarsch's "Secret Memoirs of Louis Napoleon Bonaparte," published in German under the assumed name of L. Schubart, have just appeared at Berlin, containing "The History of the Reign of Napoleon III."

THE first rather bulky volume of Neumann's long expected "Geschichte der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika" has been published at Berlin. It contains the History of the United States from the first foundation of the colony to the Presidency of Jefferson.

DR. ESTERLEY of Göttingen gives us "Der Gottesdienst der Engländer und der Deutschen Kirche," an attempt to bring about uniformity of worship in the Protestant Churches of both countries.

THE second portion of the "Nautisch-physikalischer Theil" of the Voyage round the World of the Austrian frigate *Novara* contains the Magnetic Observations made during the voyage from 1857 to 1859.

A NEW novel by Gerstäcker, "The Colony: a Picture of Brazilian Life," has appeared; also his first drama, "Die Wilderer."

AMONG the German "Volskalender" for 1864, Berthold Auerbach's deserves, as usual, special mention. It contains three tales: "William Tell," by Moriz Hartmann; "Ja Anno '13," by E. Höfer; and "Böse Saatfrucht," by the Editor. We further notice in it contributions by A. Niendorf, the poet of the "Hegler Mühle," under the title "Die Zehntablösung," a chapter of North-German peasant-life, and "The Invisible Ghost-Music," by L. Waldesrode; "Cotton and Man," by B. Sigismund; "Poultry, historically and economically," by E. Uhlenhuth; and a sketch by Max Maria von Weber—"A Winter's Night on a Railway-Engine." In conclusion, the Editor has contributed "Heitres und Ernstes." The illustrations are by M. von Kaulbach and P. Thumann.

A PSEUDONYMOUS author (yclept Don Fulano) in Frankfort-on-the-Maine has written a curious "drama from the life of a gambler," called "Rien ne va plus!" The scene is laid in "Honteburg-sur-l'Abîme," and the piece is dedicated to M. Blanc, the director of the Homburg "Hell."

THE following dramatic "Schools" have been issued by German dramatists: "The School of Life," by Raupach; "The School of the Rich," by Gutzkow; "The School of Hearts," by F. Wehl; "The School of Misery," by A. Langer; besides the translation of the "Love Chase," entitled "The School of the Enamoured," by C. Blum, and the translation of Sheridan's "School of Scandal," by Schröder.

FREIFRAU Emilie von Gleichen-Russwurm has finished and published her account of the gifts sent in to the 1859 Schiller-Festival. There came 1054 gifts from 490 cities. The greatest number were from Berlin, Vienna, Stuttgart, Nürnberg, Hamburg, and Breslau. Out of Germany, Switzerland, Hungary, Transylvania, and America were the most liberal; and in the then United States more than ninety cities celebrated the anniversary. Italy is represented by Rome, Naples, Venice, and Verona; Spain and Portugal by Malaga and Lisbon; France by Paris and Lyons; the Netherlands by Brussels, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Amsterdam, and Leyden; England by London, Liverpool, and Edinburgh; Russia and Poland by Petersburg, Orenburg, Astrachan, Hapsal, Riga, and Warsaw. There are also found in the list Cracow, Lemberg, Jassy, Bucharest, Constantinople, Malta, &c.

A PENDANT to Lessing's "Laokoon" has appeared. It is also called "Laokoon," and its author is George Rathgeber, the author of "Androkles, hitherto called the Borghese Fighter."

"ERINNERUNGEN an Charlotte Stieglitz" is the name of a collection, now first edited, of the letters and poems written by the husband of the too enthusiastic Charlotte, who, as is well known, committed suicide, in order that her phlegmatic husband might by it be moved to grand deeds. It is edited by Louis Curtze, who a few years ago edited the "Letters of Heinrich Stieglitz to his Betrothed."

"A VICTIM of the Invalids" is the title of a new comedy by Siegmund Schlesinger. It is a pendant to his former, "A Victim to Science."

THE fourth volume of Professor Schmidt's edition of the "Lexicon of Hesychius" has just been published at Jena, and completes the alphabetical arrangement from A to Ω. By way of Appendix, the editor has added his "Questiones Hesychianæ," including Aldus's preface to the first edition of 1514; Heinsius's preface, referred to by Albertus; Bentley's specimen of an emended text from the MS. in Trinity College Library, Cambridge; Ruhken's preface of 1765; and his own account of the "Codex Marcianus," preserved in the Library of St. Mark, at Venice, to which he has added a fac-simile; next a list of editions and materials and an account of the sources of the present improved text, followed by several elaborate chapters concerning Hesychius, Pamphilus, and other early lexicographers. A fifth volume, containing the Greek and Latin Indexes, will complete the work.

A NEW German novel by Brachvogel, "Schubart und seine Zeit," is announced. The poet of the "Fürstengruft," Duke Charles of Wurtemberg, and Schiller, will be among the chief characters of the book. Schubart himself is to be represented as the "Tragic Champion for the New World of Ideals."

OF new German pieces we have to mention two more by the indefatigable Mrs. Charlotte Birch-Pfeiffer—one adapted from "Julia Kavanagh," called "Queen Bell;" the other, "Sylvester Night,"—author or source not mentioned.

A. STERN and A. Oppermann, the authors of "Lives of the Painters from the Fourteenth to the Sixteenth Centuries, after Vasari and more Recent Writers on Art," have decided upon a continuation of their highly-successful work under the title, "Lives of the Painters, from the Sixteenth to the Nineteenth Century." The following will be its chief contents:—"Italy in the Seventeenth Century" (the Caracci, Domenichino, Guido Reni, Salvator Rosa, &c.); "Spain in the Seventeenth Century" (Velasquez, Murillo, &c.); "The Netherlands in the Seventeenth Century" (Rubens, Van Dyk, Rembrandt, Ruysdael, &c.); "France in the Seventeenth Century" (Poussin, Claude Lorrain, &c.); "Art and Artists in the Eighteenth Century" (Rafael, Mengs, Angelika Kauffmann, &c.); "The Rise of Art" (David, Carstens, Koch, &c.); "Recent French Art" (Ingrès, Delacroix, Delaroche, Scheffer, L. Robert, Biard, Descamps, Gallait, Calame, &c.); "Recent German Art" (Cornelius, Overbeck, Veit, Schnorr, Genelli, Schadow, Bendemann, Lessing, Schwind, Kaulbach, Rethel, Rotmann, Preller, A. Achenbach, &c.)

THE Duke of Coburg's late journey to North Africa is about to form the subject of a splendid work now in preparation. It will be in three parts. The first will contain the journey to Egypt, the stay at Cairo and Alexandria, a Nile journey, the journey to the Red Sea and Massana. The second part, written by the Duke himself, will describe hunting and travelling adventures in the mountains of Abyssinia, and will include observations on the Bogos countries and their inhabitants. The last part will contain a history of the events which befel the travelling company at Massana, the return over Egypt, the second stay at Cairo, a visit of the ladies of the harem, and the journey home. Twenty chromo-lithographs, after original water-colour drawings by Robert Kretschmer, and scientific addenda will complete the work. It is to appear in large folio, and its price is fixed at about five pounds.

POOR *Kladderadatsch* (the Prussian Punch), until now spared by Bismark-Schönhausen's all-powerful hand (probably as a sign of his gratitude for former "honoraria" for contributions he penned as an *attaché* at Frankfort), has at last shared the fate of nearly all non-feudal Prussian papers, and has received a *first warning*. But *Kladderadatsch* stands it very well. Among the clever allusions to the great fact with which the last number abounds, we select the following parody of the evil ghost's words to Gretchen in church:—

Wie anders war dir's
Als du noch voll Unschuld
Sonntäglich erschienst
Halb heitere Spiele,
Halb Spott im Herzen!
Was ist mit dir?
In deinem Herzen
Welche Missethat?
Quid tum miser nunc dicturus?
Quem Patronum rogaturus?
Quum vix Justus sit securus!
Nachbarin! Euer Fläschchen!

GUSTAV FREITAG's novel, "Debit and Credit," has got to its tenth edition, a figure reached for the first time by a German novel in the course of the present century.

THE current number of the *Zeitschrift für allgemeine Erdkunde* is one of the most interesting we have seen for some time. Among the contents we notice a description of the Discovery and Exploration of the Gulf of Mexico, from 1492 to 1543, by Kohl; Letters from Steudner to Barth; Steudner's Description of his Journey to Gondar; Kersten and Decken's Ascent of the Kilimandjaro, &c. A very welcome addition is the index to all the papers, maps, and miscellanea contained in the entire collection of this valuable periodical.

A GERMAN pamphlet, entitled "Greece, Turkey, and the East," by Arial, supposed to be a high Austrian personage, is causing a certain sensation in Germany.

OF smaller German works, pamphlets, and the like, we notice in last week's lists: "Goethe's Politische Anschauungen und Richtungen," by W. Kosegarten, containing lectures on Goethe's competence as a statesman; "Four Academical Protestant Orations," by Dr. C. A. Hase; "The Present Polish Revolution," by One of its Abettors; "Pascal: eine Schutzrede, mit polemischen Anmerkungen," by E. Bulle, directed against certain recent public attacks upon Pascal made by the Jesuitical missions in Germany; and "Die Jesuitenhetze in Bremen," by Stephan Fiedeldey.

SCIENCE.

THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION AT NEWCASTLE.
SECTIONAL REPORTS (continued).

SECTION A.

On Calcescence. By Dr. C. K. Akin.—Two papers were read on this subject by the author, one having for its title "The Transmutation of Spectral Rays," the other "An Account of Preliminary Experiments on Calcescence." The following is an abstract of both these:—The radiocent state of substances is known to originate in three different modes, which may be distinguished by the terms of spontaneous radiation, production, and reproduction of rays. As spontaneous radiation may be designated all those phenomena of ray-emission to which no particular immediate cause can be assigned, and which, in the last instance, are probably owing to certain velocities impressed on the molecules of matter from all beginning, together with certain intermolecular relations, corresponding in some degree to the primitive tangential tendency and attractive forces which sustain the motions of the solar and planetary systems. Under production of rays may be comprised all those phenomena of radiation which are engendered by agents of a more or less different nature, such as finite movement, affinity, cohesion, or electricity; whilst under reproduction those instances of radiation may be classed which arise from the incidence or communication of rays derived from distant or contiguous sources. 2. The reproduction of rays derived from distant sources, to which it is wished to call attention in this paper, may take place under circumstances of a double nature, and is termed accordingly diffusion (or reflection) and renovation—the term diffusion being common and well known, and that of renovation introduced here with a view to avoid future ambiguities. The important distinction which underlies these terms may be best understood from the language employed by Thomas Young for its elucidation (or, rather, for some more general purpose)*:—"It seems highly probable," he says, "that light and heat occur to us each in two predicaments, the vibratory or permanent, and the undulatory or transient state—vibratory light being the minute motions of ignited bodies, or of solar phosphori, and undulatory or radiant light, the motion of the ethereal medium excited by these vibrations; vibratory heat being a motion to which all material substances are liable, and which is more or less permanent, and undulatory heat that motion of the same ethereal medium, which has been shown by Mr. King and M. Pictet to be as capable of reflection as light, and by Dr. Herschel to be capable of separate refraction." The distinction thus clearly drawn between the separate offices of matter and ether, with regard to radiation upon the whole, is particularly applicable to those which regard the phenomena of ray-reproduction; the "undulatory or transient" reproduction, or, in current parlance, *diffusion*, being attributable to the agency of ether, and the "vibratory or permanent" reproduction, or, as designated above,

* Phil. Trans. for 1802, p. 47.

renovation, to the intervention of matter. 3. Of the many phenomena of nature which belong to the domain of renovation, only two—or, rather, one only—have been hitherto investigated—namely, fluorescence and the cognate phenomenon of phosphorescence. Fluorescence may be defined as a case of renovation, in which the emitted rays belong to the order of the visible, and the incident, which are the cause of the emitted, either to the same order, or to a higher order, as regards refrangibility, and where emission apparently ceases with incidence; while phosphorescence has to be considered as a case of fluorescence, distinguished from ordinary fluorescence by a sensible protraction of emission beyond the duration of incidence.* The phenomena of fluorescence, if not of phosphorescence, are specially interesting from their having evidenced the change of refrangibility to which rays are liable in the act of renovation, visible rays having been transmuted by the agency of fluorescent matter into visible rays of different colour, and invisible rays actually transmuted into visible rays. It will be presently shown, however, that the range of possible transmutations has been hitherto far from exhausted; and that, besides the transmutations observed to occur with ordinary fluorescent substances, a number of others seem *à priori* capable of being effected, some of which it would be highly interesting to realize. For the above purpose it is necessary to consider the constitution of the spectrum of a solar or other similar beam of rays. Any such spectrum, as is well known, consists of three compartments, of which the medium takes in the visible rays, and the two others, respectively, the rays of greater refrangibility and of less refrangibility than corresponds to visible or light-rays. In order to avoid circumlocution, and the dangerous ambiguity which attaches to the terms actually in use, it is proposed to adopt, in the sequel, the following nomenclature for the above-mentioned three classes of rays. The visible rays will be called Newtonic, those of greater refrangibility Ritteric, and, finally, those of smaller refrangibility Herschellie—the name being formed in each case from that of the discoverer of the particular class of rays. By means of this nomenclature it is easy to give a complete list of possible transmutations of rays, which accordingly is found appended:—

TRANSMUTATIONS.

1. Of Ritteric rays into Ritteric rays of less refrangibility.
2. Of Ritteric rays into Newtonic rays.
3. Of Ritteric rays into Herschellie rays.
4. Of Newtonic rays into Newtonic rays of less refrangibility.
5. Of Newtonic rays into Herschellie rays.
6. Of Herschellie rays into Herschellie rays of less refrangibility.
7. Of Herschellie rays into Herschellie rays of greater refrangibility.
8. Of Herschellie rays into Newtonic rays.
9. Of Herschellie rays into Ritteric rays.
10. Of Newtonic rays into Newtonic rays of greater refrangibility.
11. Of Newtonic rays into Ritteric rays.
12. Of Ritteric rays into Ritteric rays of greater refrangibility.

4. Of the enumerated twelve species of transmutations, the phenomena of fluorescence and phosphorescence afford only instances under two and four: for, as previously stated, these phenomena consist in an emission of light, or Newtonic rays, consequent upon the incidence of either Newtonic or Ritteric rays, subject to the law that in every case the refrangibility of the emitted rays is less than that of the incident. This law, which has particular reference to those cases where the incident rays are Newtonic, has been found to obtain without exception in all known examples both of fluorescence and of phosphorescence;† and, since it comes of itself true whenever the incident rays are Ritteric, the presumption has arisen that only such transmutations may actually occur in nature which involve a decrease of refrangibility in the emitted ray as compared with the incident. If such were the case, it is evident that the species instanced above from under (1) to (6) alone would be possible, whilst the remainder would be impossible by the nature of things. Among the transmutations, the possibility of which is thus more or less directly negatived, the species (8) and (10), forming in some sense the counterpart of those properly comprised under fluorescence and phosphorescence—namely, of (2) and of (4)—would offer undoubtedly the greatest importance to effect;—a simple consideration of well-known facts shall show that the transmutations (8) and (10) may be effected. 5. Metals,

by Professor Stokes, are classed among non-fluorescent,* and by M. E. Becquerel, to whom, as is well known, the most delicate observations on phosphorescence are due, among non-phosphorescent substances†—the former philosopher having been unable to elicit Newtonic rays from metals by the means found efficient with fluorescent substances, and the latter physicist having been unable to detect any persistency of luminosity in metals exposed to the treatment of the phosphoscope. On the other hand, it is well known that metals may be rendered self-luminous or incandescent by contact with flames of high temperature, by electrical and other means; and, though no experiment seems to be on record affording clear evidence of the fact, it is impossible to doubt that the same effect might also be produced by solar radiation of sufficient intensity. If this latter assertion be founded on truth, it must be evident that metals, in the wide sense of the word, are fluorescent, and most probably also phosphorescent: for of these phenomena no other definition can for the present be given than that of an emission by renovation of luminous rays on the part of substances irradiated from without, which would clearly be applicable to the case of any metal rendered incandescent by means of insolation. Or, if the definition of fluorescence and phosphorescence be restricted so as to apply only to facts of the same order as hitherto discovered—namely, to emissions by renovation of luminous or Newtonic rays, on or after incidence of either Newtonic or Ritteric rays—even in that case it may be shown that metals have a claim to be classed among fluorescent, and undoubtedly also phosphorescent substances. Every kind of radiation possesses, with respect to any given substance, a certain heating power, which depends—1, on the amplitude of the given ray; 2, on the absorptive power of the given substance for the given ray; and 3, in some unknown manner on the length of the undulation of the given radiation. Any kind of radiation may hence be competent to raise any substance whatsoever to any required temperature, by a suitable adjustment of the element of amplitude alone, provided the substance considered be not absolutely pervious to, or an absolute reflector of, the given radiation;—more particularly must any species of Newtonic or Ritteric radiation be competent to raise any metal to the fixed temperature of incandescence, if the radiation have sufficient amplitude, and be not of that quality which exceptionally may render it liable to absolute reflection. The conclusions here stated are warranted by all our present knowledge regarding the nature of heat, temperature, and radiations. For, however small may appear the calorific effect of the more refrangible part of an ordinary solar spectrum—whether this be owing to the comparatively small amplitude of the radiations composing it (which we are unacquainted with), or to the peculiar nature of the undulations which renders them less absorbable or otherwise unfit to produce as great heating effects as the less refrangible radiations, not to speak of the effects of dispersion—in no case where actual absorption takes place can this heating effect be absolutely nought.‡ But metals, by the teaching of experience, do absorb both Newtonic and also Ritteric rays,§ the heating effect of which, by an increase or addition of amplitude, may hence be augmented to any wished-for degree, and more particularly be made to result in incandescence—theoretically and saving practical difficulties. The above considerations clearly demonstrate that, if no other reasons militated to the contrary than the apparent results arrived at by experimenters, it were right to class metals both among fluorescent and also phosphorescent substances; and, in the next place, what is even more important, that, by means of metals at any rate—and probably by the very substances hitherto classed among fluorescent—the opposite transmutations of those which are effected by ordinarily fluorescent matter, and which were believed to be alone possible, might be realized. For it will be evident that incandescence, or an emission of Newtonic rays, which, as proved, might be engendered even by Ritteric rays, will be still more easy to produce by means of Herschellie rays, to which, for some reason or other, a greater

heating power is universally acknowledged to belong; as it will be also possible to produce, by any given luminous or Newtonic radiation, incandescence of such intensity that some of the Newtonic rays emitted should exceed in refrangibility the incident—or, in other words, through the production of incandescence by irradiation, or more particularly insolation, the transmutations previously denoted by (8) and (10) might be accomplished. 6. To test the exactness of the preceding inferences, the author, conjointly with Mr. G. Griffith, Deputy-Professor of Experimental Philosophy in the University of Oxford, has instituted the following experiments. In the focus of an ordinary concave glass mirror, measuring some 18" across, and irradiated by the sun, a piece of platinum-foil was exposed, attached to the bottom of an opaque tube, so that its back-side might be observed free from the interference of any extraneous light, except such which itself might emit on becoming incandescent. On days of powerful sunshine the platinum became vividly incandescent, and, viewed by means of a pocket-spectroscope (which was inserted in the above-mentioned tube), a spectrum exhibiting all the visible or Newtonic rays might be observed. On placing, however, in the path of the reflected cone of rays, between the mirror and its focus, a sheet of monochromatic red glass—which, of all substances capable of absorbing the more refrangible part of the spectrum, allows the less refrangible part the freest access—the incandescence was found to be extinguished, or at least to become so faint as to be of doubtful visibility. It was needless to try, under the circumstances, whether the rays reflected by the mirror were capable of producing incandescence, after having traversed a diaphragm allowing access only to Herschellie rays and absorbing all the rest. Having found the mirror by itself thus far inefficient, it was intended to use the following expedient. Let the heating effect of the rays transmitted by the diaphragm of red glass, in the above experiment, be designated by α , and that of the rays absorbed by the same by β . It having been found, as mentioned previously, that $(\alpha + \beta)$ was sufficient for the production of incandescence, let the experiment be made as first described—that is to say, the mirror be exposed to the sun, the platinum placed in its focus, and the red glass be interposed—but let the platinum besides be connected with a galvanic battery capable of replacing to it the heating effect β , lost by absorption in the diaphragm; and let it be observed whether the platinum will not become incandescent, as heretofore, when irradiated by the whole cone of rays, which is found concentrated in the focus of the mirror. This experiment—which supposes besides that β by itself is not competent to produce incandescence—is open to some objections in consequence of the variability of electrical resistances with temperature, and may therefore be varied in the following manner, in which it will become entirely unexceptionable. The apparatus being all arranged as above, let an opaque screen be at first interposed between the mirror and the platinum in its focus; but let, on the other hand, the platinum be rendered incandescent by the agency of the galvanic battery alone with which it is connected. Then, breaking this connexion, let the moment be seized at which the platinum, though still hot, ceases to shine, and let at the same instant the screen mentioned above be removed, so as to allow the rays reflected from the mirror to impinge upon the platinum after having traversed the red diaphragm. These rays, being of sufficient calefactory power—as found upon trial—to burn dry paper and pieces of wood, will presumably be competent to revive the incandescence of the platinum, if dexterously applied at the very point of time of its extinction. The experiment being made either in the first way, or in that just described, it would be necessary to observe whether the incandescence produced is visible if looked at through an eye-glass of such a nature as to be certain that all rays of equal or less refrangibility than those transmitted by the red glass are absorbed, whilst only such as are of higher refrangibility are permitted to reach the observer. Such a medium might be found in certain varieties of green glass, which absorb all the rays of the spectrum of lower refrangibility than the line D—supposing the so-called monochromatic red glass transmitted only these very rays, and none of greater refrangibility. This is generally supposed. On looking, however, at the sun with a pocket spectroscope through such red glass, it is easy to notice that, besides the rays mentioned, it transmits, under the circumstances, rays of greater refrangibility, extending towards the blue region of the spectrum, but curiously separated from the red and orange

* *Phil. Trans.* for 1852, p. 516—"Metals proved totally insensible."

† *Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.*, vol. 57, p. 45 (1859)—"Les métaux n'ont donné jusqu'ici aucun effet appréciable."

‡ Compare the interesting experiments and remarks by Dr. Draper, in *Phil. Mag.*, vol. i., pp. 93–95 (1851).

§ With regard to Newtonic rays, the colour of metals is a sufficient proof of their absorptive power. For proof of the absorptive power of metals with regard to Ritteric rays, see observations by Prof. W. A. Miller, in *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, No. 51, p. 163.

* *S. Engl. Cycl.*, vol. iv, p. 124 (Arts and Sciences).
† See *Phil. Trans.* for 1852, p. 499; and *Ann. de Chim. et de Phys.*, vol. 55, pp. 114 and 117 (1859). In a few instances, the incident and emitted rays have been found to be of equal refrangibility.

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by a perfectly dark band—so that it becomes at least doubtful whether this red glass, on being employed for the above experiment in the way described, does not allow rays of higher refrangibility to impinge on the platinum than the green glass is capable of absorbing. The investigation of this point and other untoward circumstances did not allow of the above experiments to be performed in time to be communicated, except as a project, to the Association.* One interesting observation, made in the course of preparing for the preceding experiments, may be worthy of mention. The platinum being rendered incandescent in the focus of the mirror by insolation, a film of water of some 2" thickness, contained between thin sheets of glass, was interposed, and no other diaphragm; when the luminosity of the platinum quite disappeared, just as upon the interposition of the red-glass diaphragm. As, by the experiments of Masson and Jamin,† the absorption exerted by glass and water of the thickness described upon the visible or Newtonian rays is extremely small, whilst, according to Professor W. A. Miller,‡ the same may be pronounced with regard to the absorption of the Ritteric rays; but, on the other hand, it is well known that glass, and even more so water, very powerfully absorb the invisible Herschellic rays—it is evident that the sudden disappearance of the incandescence of the platinum foil, upon the interposition of the above water-and-glass diaphragm, is principally owing to the abstraction of a great amount of Herschellic rays from the incident beam. Hence it is proved that, in the first-described experiment, where all the three species of rays impinge upon the platinum, the Herschellic rays contribute to the production of incandescence—that is to say, of luminous or Newtonian rays; though this actually does not prove that Herschellic rays by themselves are capable of causing incandescence. It might, besides, be objected to the above inference that the ceasing of incandescence in the case described may perhaps be owing to the loss of luminous and other rays, by reflection at the several surfaces of the diaphragm which had been interposed. This objection, however, may be obviated by simply remarking that, upon employing a thinner film of water, the diaphragm being otherwise similarly constructed, and, therefore, involving the same losses of radiation by reflection, but a smaller loss of Herschellic rays by absorption—the incandescence is found to continue (though of course its brilliancy is weakened) notwithstanding the interposition of the diaphragm. 7. Another class of phenomena, from which corroboration may be derived that transmutations involving an increase of refrangibility in the emitted beam as compared with the incident—and more especially the transmutation of Herschellic into Newtonian rays—are feasible, may be briefly adverted to. The glow of a platinum-wire held in the flame of a Bunsen's gas-burner, of carbon particles in the candle-flame, or of lime in the oxy-hydrogen flame, and no less so the phenomena of coloration to which the introduction of substances capable of vaporization gives rise to in ordinary gas-flames, in the opinion of the author, constitute examples of ray-renovation or transmutation, in *statu nascenti* (so to speak), of the rays. In all these instances the matter introduced into the various flames does not produce any new rays by chemical or other means, but acts simply as a renovating and transmuting agent on the rays emitted by the comburent gases with which it is in contact. The above phenomena in so far as are, if not identical, still extremely similar to those of ordinary ray-transmutation by fluorescence; but there is reason to believe that the transmutations which they evidence are the reverse of those effected by ordinary fluorescence. Perhaps the most trustworthy example for the deduction of such an inference is afforded by the case of the oxy-hydrogen flame and of lime-light. It is well known that the oxy-hydrogen flame by itself is but sparingly visible, and hence poor in Newtonian rays; it has been found to be little active photographically, and is, hence, rather deficient in Ritteric rays; yet, on the introduction of lime into the flame, the well-known brilliant Drummond's light is emitted, consisting of a dazzling beam of Newtonian rays, which, to conclude from its powerful photographic effects observed by Professor W. A. Miller,§ is probably accompanied

by an intense beam of Ritteric ray. As the oxy-hydrogen flame, from its great powers of calcification, must necessarily emit Herschellic rays abundantly in its natural state, it admits of little doubt that the Newtonian and Ritteric rays engendered by the introduction of lime into the flame arise from a transmutation of Herschellic rays in the very act of emission. By means of a couple of conjugate mirrors, having in one of its foci an oxy-hydrogen flame, and in the other a piece of lime, the phenomenon of the transmutation of Herschellic into higher rays, thus spontaneously occurring in the production of Drummond's light, might be made to assume the form of ordinary fluorescent phenomena. 8. In the original communication a third class of experiments, promising to effect a conversion of Herschellic rays into Newtonian, was adduced, which, from its being almost entirely conjectural, shall be here passed over. There were also several distinctions mentioned, which most probably will divide ordinary fluorescent phenomena from those to which attention has been drawn in this paper. To distinguish these latter from the former, the author proposed the term of *Calcescence*—from calcium, the name of the characteristic chemical constituent of lime, whose action on the oxy-hydrogen flame suggested the preceding speculations and experimental attempts—which may be applied to all phenomena involving an emission of Newtonian rays by transmutation of incident Herschellic rays, or generally an emission of rays of increased refrangibility as compared with the generative incident.

On the Relationship between the Variation of the Eccentricity of the Earth's Orbit and the Moon's Mean Motion in Longitude. By the Rev. Dr. Hincks.—Dr. Brugsch had found in one of the hieroglyphic inscriptions a notice of an eclipse of the sun seen at Thebes on a given day in a given year of a given king. Dr. Hincks had determined its absolute date on what appeared to him satisfactory grounds; but, upon calculating the course of the shadow by Hansen's Tables of the Moon, he found that it would not reach the earth so far west as Egypt. Dr. Hincks therefore asked for the assistance of those more practically engaged than himself in astronomical pursuits in answering the following queries:—Let e_0 and M_0 be the eccentricity of the earth's orbit and the mean longitude of the Moon at the beginning of 1801. Let e_t and M_t be the eccentricity and the mean longitude at the end of any time t , the longitude being reckoned from the equinox of 1801.

$$\text{Let } e_t = e_0 + e_1 t + e_2 t^2, \\ \text{and } M_t = M_0 + M_1 t + M_2 t^2 + M_3 t^3.$$

It was formerly thought that $M_2 = ae_1$, and $M_3 = a_1 e_2$; a and a_1 being co-efficients supposed to be known. Some years ago it was discovered that these co-efficients were much less than they had been supposed to be; and it was inferred that some other cause had combined with gravity to make M_2 so great as it is. Within the last year he had heard that some eminent astronomers were of opinion that e_1 was "much greater" than it had been supposed to be; but he had heard nothing precise as to its value. It had occurred to him that as M_2 had been greatly overrated by astronomers, the above equation $M_2 = ae_1$, might still hold good. On this point he desired to ascertain the opinions of the Section. If the equation did hold good, he observed that the eclipse would not only be visible at Thebes, but might be annular; and he thought that so rare a phenomenon as an annular eclipse was more likely to be recorded than one which was merely partial.

Professor Piazzi Smyth said that he conceived he should best consult the wishes of Dr. Hincks, and be more likely to attain the object he desired, if he took time to consider and to deliberately answer the important queries he had proposed.

On Fogs. By Dr. J. H. Gladstone, F.R.S.—The author had obtained additional returns of the occurrence of fog at different stations round the coasts of the United Kingdom, and, on examining these, with those previously brought before the notice of the British Association, he had been led to some new generalizations. The most important of these are—1st. The distinction between general and local fogs. A general fog is found to occur at every, or almost every, station along a whole country side, extending generally one or two hundred miles, and often much more than that; while a local fog is marked at only one station, or perhaps at two very near together. There is nothing intermediate between these two kinds of fog; they do not insensibly pass one into the other; there is scarcely any record, in fact, of a fog visiting three or four stations and no more. Local fogs depend, no doubt, on peculiarities of

the locality; but it is difficult to draw just conclusions about them, as the peculiarities of the observer seriously affect the returns of them, and there is little or no check. A general fog, on the contrary, is at once recognised by the uniform occurrence of the same date in the lists. The fogs observed at the light-vessels at sea appear to be almost exclusively of this general character, probably because there are fewer conditions at sea to create a fog over a limited area. The most extensive fog which the author had traced was that of June 22nd and 23rd, 1861: it spread all round England and Wales, except part of the Suffolk and Norfolk coast, all round Scotland with the exception of some places in the extreme north, and rather irregularly along the whole east of Ireland. 2nd. These general fogs are in the habit of visiting certain geographical areas. There seem, indeed, to be certain parts of the coast which are peculiarly liable to become the landfall of a fog, which, according to its magnitude, stretches to a greater or less distance right and left of this particular spot. Thus, in Ireland, from the lighthouses, of which Dr. Gladstone possesses daily returns for three years, there are two special localities on which fogs seem to be in the habit of striking. One of these is the south-east corner, often the centre of a fog that covers the coasts of Wexford and its neighbourhood, and sometimes obscures the whole southern and eastern shores. The other is the western half of the southern shore, the fog rarely extending on the one side beyond Minehead, or on the other side beyond Valencia, except that it seems in the habit of visiting at the same time the prominences of Mayo. The northern shore was very rarely visited by fogs of any extent, or the north-west either. From England and Scotland the author has similar daily returns only for the first half of 1861, and thus he has less confidence in any generalization for these countries, especially as the Irish returns show that these fogs visit a particular coast very unequally in different seasons. Yet, during the period above mentioned, it is perfectly clear that fogs frequently made a landfall on the Suffolk coast, extending perhaps from the north-eastern bend of Norfolk down to Essex, appearing at all the numerous light-ships and the principal lighthouses along that side of the country. The most extensive fogs of the eastern coast seemed to have their centre about Yorkshire, from which they stretched north and south, sometimes confined between Northumberland and Lincolnshire, but at other times extending from Aberdeenshire down to Suffolk, and reappearing again at the Fens. In more than one instance also these fogs crossed the mainland and made their appearance in the Bristol Channel. On the western coast there occurred also several general fogs, their landfall being the headlands of Wales and Cornwall; they generally penetrated into the Bristol Channel and got round to the south as far as the Start. Between that point and Beachy Head there were few general fogs in the first half of 1861, though at some stations local fogs abounded. On the eastern coast the mouth of the Thames escaped their visitation better than any other part. As to Scotland, the eastern fogs that stretched from England up to the corner of Aberdeenshire sometimes included the whole eastern shores up to the Shetlands in their range. The Orkneys seem to be included in two great areas of eastern and western fogs, the western extending thence by Cape Wrath to the Hebrides and the Western Islands. It would be at once interesting to the scientific man, and useful to the navigator, to ascertain more accurately the limits of the areas peculiarly exposed to general fogs, and to determine the meteorological conditions on which the formation, continuance, and disappearance of these fogs depend. Beyond showing in some cases a connexion between the Yorkshire fogs and a north-east wind, Dr. Gladstone has at present been able to do but little towards the solution of this problem; but he proposed it as an important inquiry to those scientific men who make meteorology their more especial study.

SECTION B.

On the Various Kinds of Pyrites used on the Tyne and Neighbourhood in the Manufacture of Sulphuric Acid. By Mr. J. Pattinson.—Iron pyrites, or sulphate of iron, he said, had been used on the Tyne as a source of sulphur in the manufacture of sulphuric acid since about the year 1840. In this locality a few hundreds of tons of sulphur per annum are now only made into sulphuric acid, which is concentrated and sold for special purposes, for which the acid from pyrites is unfitted, owing to its containing a small quantity of arsenic; whilst about 75,000 tons of pyrites

* The Association have since placed at the disposal of the author and Mr. G. Griffith a grant of money to carry out the experiments suggested by him with a more powerful mirror than was employed in the above-described trials.

† *Com. Rend.*, vol. 31, p. 14 (1850).

‡ *Proc. Roy. Soc.*, No 51.

§ *Chem. Gaz.* for March 21, 1863.

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are annually consumed, containing on an average 34,000 tons of sulphur, and representing a value of about £110,000. The remainder of the paper was chiefly taken up with details respecting the amount of pyrites used on the Tyne, and an analysis of the substance. Cleveland pyrites is found between the beds of ironstone of the Cleveland district, in Yorkshire, and is only used at one large sulphuric-acid manufactory situate at Middlesbro'. The deposit varies from 6 to 12 inches in thickness, and consists of concretions of oolitic particles of pyrites mixed with ironstone, which crumble to pieces on exposure to the air. On an average, it only contains about 25 per cent. of sulphur. Of the "coal brasses" variety, from 6000 to 8000 tons are used on the Tyne per annum. It is found in the collieries of the district, associated with the coal. Besides iron pyrites and coal, this substance often contains variable quantities of carbonate of lime and oxide of iron. What the future of the pyrites trade may be it is impossible to foresee; but this mineral exists in such inexhaustible abundance that its use in the manufacture of sulphuric acid is not likely to be superseded by sulphur, unless new and cheaper sources of the latter are discovered.

Mr. Spence stated the fact that at the present moment in Swansea as much sulphur was being thrown off in the form of sulphurous acid gas as would make all the sulphurous acid gas used in our immense chemical manufactories. His own calculation was that they were throwing into the atmosphere there a quantity equivalent to about 4500 tons of sulphuric acid per week. Hitherto it had been impossible to use that in the manufacture of sulphuric acid. At least, there was no plan that had been generally adopted that could be made useful. He (Mr. Spence), however, had recently devised a furnace by which he was using copper ore, and, if it were adopted by the Swansea smelters, they could manufacture all the sulphuric acid at actually almost no cost. The subject was worthy of consideration. By his furnace the whole of the sulphur in the ore was obtained.

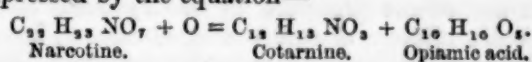
Mr. Stevenson remarked that, when using copper ores, it was desirable to leave sufficient sulphur in the burnt ore to form a regulus when smelted for copper. The ore when burnt in the usual way generally contained this quantity. Some descriptions of pyrites had been rendered so free from sulphur as to admit of the residue being smelted for iron; but this was quite exceptional, and had not been done to any extent.

The Abbé Moigno congratulated the Newcastle manufacturers on using pyrites, a source of sulphur which he said he had indicated thirty years ago.

Mr. Worsley drew the attention of the Section to the large amount of heat evolved in the burning of pyrites. The excess of heat, as compared with that evolved in burning brimstone, was due to the oxidation of the iron, which burns no less than the sulphur, and in so burning evolves heat. Owing to this, the manufacturer has to cool the gases produced from pyrites, as they would otherwise act too violently upon the leaden chambers. Lately it had been found possible to utilize this heat by passing the hot gas through a "cascade chimique," down which the acid was drawn off from the chambers. By this means the gas was cooled, and the acid concentrated in one operation. The combustion of the iron pyrites thus economizes the coal commonly used to concentrate the chamber acid.

On the Constitution and Rational Formula of Narcotine. By Mr. G. C. Foster and Dr. Matthiessen, F.R.S.—Chemists have been aware of the existence of narcotine as one of the constituents of opium—the dried-up juice obtained from the capsules of the white poppy—since almost the beginning of the present century; and the remarkable properties of the numerous derivatives which it yields, when acted on by various chemical reagents, have caused it to be made the subject of several extended investigations. Still, the constitution of narcotine, and of the products derived from it, has not hitherto been explained, and even its elementary composition has remained so far doubtful that some chemists have admitted the existence of three or four distinct varieties, each differing in composition from the rest. In a paper read before the Royal Society in March of this year, and to be published in the forthcoming part of the Philosophical Transactions, the authors of this communication have shown that (adopting the atomic weights $C = 12$, $H = 1$, $O = 16$, &c.) the composition of narcotine is represented by the formula $C_{22}H_{23}NO_7$, and is always the same. In the same paper they have shown that the composition of cotarnine is represented by the formula $C_{11}H_{13}NO_3$, so that the

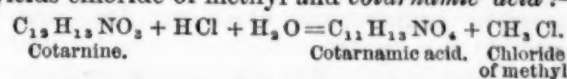
action of oxidizing agents upon narcotine may be expressed by the equation—



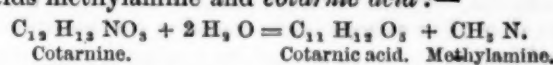
They have there also described several new transformations of narcotine, estarnine, and opianic acid, which it is necessary, for the understanding of what follows, to recapitulate briefly in this place:—

1. One molecule of narcotine, boiled with excess of hydriodic acid, yields three molecules of iodide of methyl.

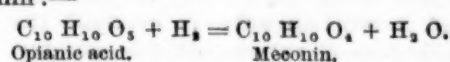
2. Cotarnine, heated with hydrochloric acid, yields chloride of methyl and cotarnamic acid:—



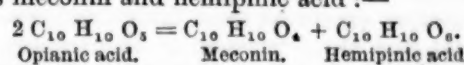
3. Cotarnine, heated with dilute nitric acid, yields methylamine and cotarnic acid:—



4. Nascent hydrogen converts opianic acid into meconin:—

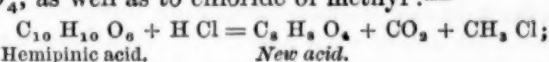


5. Opianic acid, boiled with strong potash-ley, yields meconin and hemipinic acid:—

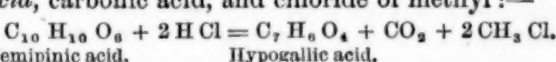


6. Opianic acid, meconin, or hemipinic acid, boiled with hydrochloric acid, yields chloride of methyl.

7. In the case of hemipinic acid, the action of hydrochloric acid, if continued for a short time, gives rise to carbonic acid and a new acid, $C_8H_8O_4$, as well as to chloride of methyl:—

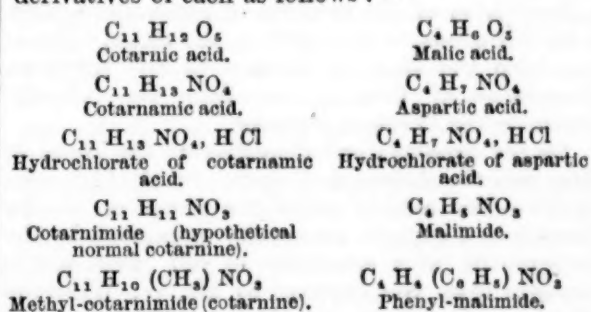


or, if continued for a longer time, to hypogallie acid, carbonic acid, and chloride of methyl:—

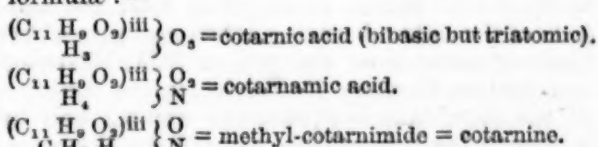


The object of the present communication is to point out analogies between the substances which take part in, or result from, these transformations and bodies whose constitution is better known; and so to deduce a series of rational formulæ which shall, as far as possible, express their respective chemical functions and their relations to one another.

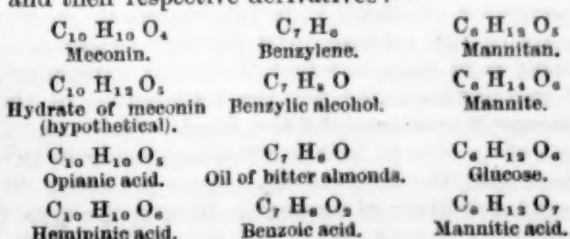
Cotarnine.—The authors regard transformations 2 and 3 as proving that cotarnine is a methylized compound, corresponding to a not yet isolated normal cotarnine, $C_{11}H_{11}NO_3$, bearing the same relation to cotarnic acid that malimide bears to malic acid. They point out that cotarnic acid resembles malic acid in being a bibasic acid containing five atoms of oxygen, and compare the derivatives of each as follows:—



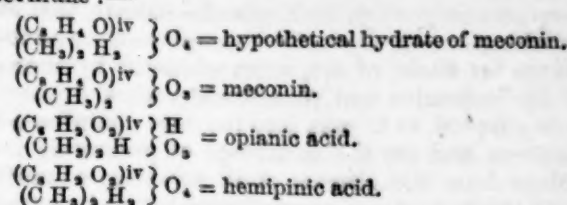
Hence they deduce the following rational formulæ:—



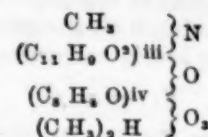
Meconin, Opianic acid, Hemipinic acid.—Transformations 6 and 7 may be taken as proof that each of these bodies is a di-methylized derivative of a corresponding normal compound not yet isolated. The authors further regard transformations 4 and 5 as indicating the existence of a hydrate of meconin, $C_{10}H_{12}O_5$, and they suppose this compound to be a first result of both transformations, and to give rise to meconin by subsequent loss of the elements of water. If this be admitted, opianic acid and its congeners may be compared to oil of bitter almonds and glucose, and their respective derivatives:—



These comparisons lead to the following rational formulæ:—



Combining the above formula for meconin with that previously arrived at for cotarnine, the authors give the following as the rational formula of narcotine:—



—believing that by it all the known transformations of narcotine and of its immediate products of decomposition can be expressed.

Reports on the Metallurgy of the District. By Messrs. J. L. Bell, T. Sopwith, T. Spencer, and Dr. Richardson.—The complete manner in which their admirable reports are drawn up utterly prevents our giving a useful abstract in the space at our disposal.

On Aluminium. By Mr. J. L. Bell (Mayor of Newcastle).—The progress of the manufacture of this—so far as the arts are concerned—new metal has scarcely been such as to require much to be added to those admirable researches bestowed upon the process by the distinguished chemist, M. St. Claire Deville of Paris. Upon the introduction of its manufacture at Washington, three and a half years ago, the source of the alumina was the ordinary ammonia alum of commerce—a nearly pure sulphate of alumina and ammonia. Exposure to heat drove off the water, sulphuric acid and ammonia leaving the alumina. This was converted into the double chloride of aluminium and sodium by the process described by the French chemist and practised in France, and the double chloride subsequently decomposed by fusion with sodium. Faint, however, as the traces might be of impurity in the alum itself, they to a great extent, if not entirely, being of a fixed character when exposed to heat, were to be found in the alumina, from which, by the action of the chlorine on the heated mass, a large proportion, if not all, found their way into the sublimed double chloride, and, once there, it is unnecessary to say that, under the influence of the sodium, any silica, iron, or phosphorus found their way into the aluminium sought to be obtained. Now, it happens that the presence of these impurities, in a degree so small as almost to be infinitesimal, interferes so largely with the colour, as well as with the malleability of the aluminium, that the use of any substance containing them is of a fatal character. Nor is this all, for the nature of that compound which hitherto has constituted the most important application to this metal—aluminium-bronze—is so completely changed by using aluminium containing the impurities referred to that it ceases to possess any of those properties which render it valuable. As an example of the amount of interference exercised by very minute quantities of foreign matters, it is perhaps worthy of notice that very few varieties of copper have been found susceptible of being employed for the manufacture of aluminium-bronze; and hitherto we have not at Washington, nor have they in France, been able to establish in what the difference consists between copper fit for the production of aluminium-bronze, and that which is utterly unsuitable for the purpose. These considerations have led us, both here and in France, to adopt the use of another raw material for the production of aluminium, which either does not contain the impurities referred to as so prejudicial, or contains them in such a form as to admit of their easy separation. This material is Bauxite, so called from the name of the locality where it is found in France. It contains

Silica	28
Titanium	31
Sesqui oxide of iron	25.5
Alumina	57.4
Carbonate of lime	0.4
Water	10.8

1000

The Bauxite is ground and mixed with the ordinary soda-ash of commerce, and heated in a furnace. The soda combines with the alumina, and the aluminate of soda so formed is separated from the insoluble portions—viz., peroxide of iron, silico-aluminate of soda, &c.—by lixiviation. Muriatic acid and carbonic acid is then added to the solution, which throws down pure alumina.

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Aluminium is so extensively used in the arts as to keep the only work in England—namely, that at Washington—pretty actively employed. As a substance for works of art, when whitened by means of hydrofluoric and phosphoric acid, it appears well adapted, as it runs into the most complicated patterns, and has the advantage of preserving its colour from the absence of all tendency to unite with sulphur, or to become affected by sulphuretted hydrogen. A large amount of the increased activity in the manufacture referred to is due to the exceeding beauty of its compound with copper, which is so like gold as scarcely to be distinguishable from that metal, with the additional valuable property of being nearly as hard as iron.

SECTION C.

On the Pennine Fault. By Mr. Bainbridge.—The author commenced his paper by describing the course of the fault, which reached from the Pennine chain, the back-bone of England, at a point near Tindale Fell in Cumberland, passing near Brough and Kirby Stephen, and near Kirby Lonsdale where it is known as the Craven Fault, and continued to the vale of the Wharfe, an entire distance of 130 miles. The Craven fault had been minutely described by Professor Phillips, but the Pennine fault had not received the same amount of study. Both were on a much grander scale than the Ninety Fathom Tynedale fault, for they rend mountains asunder, and are, in fact, immense fractures or splits along a long line of stratification. The Pennine chain was elevated on an axis which is now represented by the line of fault; but the true axis would probably reach further westward, and in time past the chain would be higher than it is now. The slope to the western sea might have been as extensive as that now existing to the German Ocean. In the course of a graphic description of the chain and fault from point to point, the author traced the igneous rock for nearly twenty miles along the base of the carboniferous chain, showing it to be of varied form and elevation, spread out into flat spaces, heaped up into lumpish hills, and rising to the skies in majestic graceful cones. There was no appearance of volcanic craters. Various conjectures might be hazarded as to the manner in which this mass of igneous matter was ejected. The wonderful forms of Merton and Dufton Pikes seemed to prove not only that they began and completed their full stature after the elevation of the chain, and not only that fabrics like these could not at any subsequent period have been submitted to any serious aqueous disturbance, but they seemed to indicate separate volcanic rests. There was no evidence in any part of the line of any extreme violence of explosion, and these pikes would probably not have survived in their present integrity any such fits of power. Their sides and summits must have been broken, and their contents reduced to the chaos apparent in other portions of the line. The growth of cones would require longer periods of time than that of pikes. It might appear to some an extravagant idea that the pikes had been burning mountains with regular volcanic rents; but, like giant cones, they might, through a central channel, age after age, pour forth their masses of liquid matter, differing in kind, but all successively hardening and consolidating the growing mountains with one fiery garment laid on another, and that, further fastened by dikes and veins of interjected substances, as they appeared to be, like the bones of a large skeleton, they might stand firm in their unsupported strength, till the fire ceased to burn, and the cup was, for the last time, filled up to and beyond the brim. Some connexion between the Pennine fault and the Ninety Fathom Dyke had often been suggested. The dike was first seen at Cullercoats, on the Northumberland coast, about half-a-mile north from the mouth of the river Tyne, where its effect was very conspicuous in throwing down the magnesian limestone and the underlying stones from ninety to 100 fathoms. As there was not a vestige of coal in the Pennine chain, its elevation and the crisis of the Pennine fault must have occurred either before the deposition of the coal, or after the chain had been denuded of coal already deposited. But at the Tynedale fault coal was thrown down from a considerable height. It could hardly, therefore, be doubted that coal once existed throughout the chain upon the millstone grit, and was washed off during the partial submergence of the chain. In that case it would follow that the Tynedale fault, occurring after the deposition of the magnesian limestone and before that of the New Red Sandstone, was older than the Pennine fault, and that the latter fault, with all its volcanic consequences, might have

occurred within the same geological epochs, but after the effects produced by the Tynedale fault. This denudation of coal would, of course, imply an intermediate subsidence of the mountain limestone system, during which the coal of the chain, both north and south of its depression and burial along the line of the Tynedale fault, would be washed away. It did not follow that this subsidence should be excessive. There appeared to be direct evidence in the disturbed magnesian conglomerates near Brough that the Pennine fault, which followed the final elevation of the chain, may have occurred after the dislocation of the magnesian limestone at Cullercoats. The existence of the Ingleton coal, which may, from causes operating on a limited tract, have escaped destruction, seemed to show that the Tynedale fault must have preceded the Pennine fault; but after all that had been said there was abundant scope for further observations and reasoning on this difficult subject.

Professor Phillips said that, in the study of this magnificent fault, so unlike all other faults in England, it was impossible to overlook the main fact that the elevation of the country lying between the Ingleborough range and Alston Moor (a district in which a general conformity and comparative exception from faults and fractures obtains), and the depression of the country lying northward of the Cheviots, had equally resulted from one great subterranean disturbance. The depression amounted in some places to a throw-down of 3 to 4000 feet, so that if the coal-measures south of Edinburgh were in their proper place, they would be a thousand feet above that city. The great system of dislocation seemed confined in age to one period, for there was no proof that the elevated plateau of Yorkshire had ever been submerged from the time the carboniferous limestones were deposited, until the berg-laden sea of the post-pliocene age swept over it. Another phenomenon, inseparable from our considerations of the fault, was that all the mineral veins ran at right angles to it. He demurred to the conclusion of Mr. Bainbridge that the cone-shaped mountains were volcanoes, preferring to consider that their shape resulted from long periods of waste; even the action of rain-water through an immensity of time might have so moulded and shaped them. A special examination of their mineral constitution was necessary; but they had always appeared to him as approaching the character of those schistose rocks, pierced by dikes of igneous origin, which he had studied in the Lake District.

SECTION D.

Notes on Canadian Forests. By Dr. Hulbert.—This paper consisted of notes on the Canadian forests in connexion with climate, and contained a description of the varieties of vegetation within a district of about 2,000,000 square miles, extending from the Gulf of Mexico to the northern boundaries of Canada, and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Western Prairies.

On the Syndactylous Condition of the Hand in Man and the Anthropoid Apes. By Mr. C. Carter Blake.—The author called the attention of the Section to a curious abnormality presented by the integument of a specimen of old male gorilla brought from the Gaboon by Mr. W. Winwood Reade, and presented by that gentleman to the Museum of the Anthropological Society. The specimens of gorilla which have been the subjects of the elaborate and complete memoirs which have appeared from the pen of MM. Duvernoy and Isidore Geoffroy St.-Hilaire, in the Archives of the Paris Museum (vols. viii. and x.), and by Professor Owen in various parts of the *Zoological Transactions*, have, with other authors, all coincided in the statement of a fact, true as regards the specimens with which they were acquainted, which probably represent the majority of specimens of gorilla which had been examined in Europe. This statement, reduced to a general proposition, is that the integument of the skin of the fingers was more or less connected across the first digital phalanx in such a manner that the first joints were firmly connected together by skin, sometimes as far as the distal extremity of the first phalanx, sometimes merely to the middle of the phalanx. The paper continued:—"In no specimen of gorilla, of the description of which I am yet cognisant, are the digits of the anterior extremity free to the same extent as in man, in which the distal extremities of the metacarpals mark the termination of the amount of syndactyly of the hand. In the specimen of gorilla to which allusion is made in this short note, the digits of the fingers present a different condition of connexion than in the typical specimens described by zoologists. The second

(index), third (medius), and fourth (annulus) digits are free beyond the distal end of the metacarpals as in the human subject; the fifth digit (minimus) is also in a less degree attached to the annulus than in the specimens of gorilla contained in various public museums. We have thus a specimen of gorilla in which the digits of the hand are almost as free as in the hand of the lower races of mankind. Careful examination by a lens of the integument before the preparation of the specimen by Mr. Leadbeater, who first called my attention to this abnormality, demonstrates the fact that the epidermis covers the cutis on the inner sides of the interdigital spaces of the first phalanges of this specimen. The consistency of this epidermis merely differs in degree from that of the homologous structure in the foot and in other parts of the body. It would be interesting to compare such a curious abnormality of the integument with the similar abnormalities which exist in the human species. The human fingers are most frequently connected together by a syndactyle, and remain during life, in that state of arrested development (as regards the integument) which is typified by the permanent stage of development of the gorilla. On the other hand, I have never yet met, either in the chimpanzee or orang-utan, with a similar case of freedom of digits with that here described. We must, however, recollect that the number of specimens of chimpanzee and orang-utan which have been accurately described anatomically form a very small percentage. How many individuals of gorilla may exist in which a similar "accidental" variety may exist must remain for a long time unknown to us. Syndactyly is often congenital. A case has recently come before my observation of a married female, in which the medius and annulus of both hands are firmly connected together by integument. A similar condition prevails in one of her children; another has the deformity on the right hand; whilst the youngest preserves the digits in their normal condition. The speculation whether a like rule or its converse may or may not prevail in the ape; whether it might not, through generations, during which the congenital defect of the gorilla, or absence of the characteristic syndactyle, might be transmitted, operate towards the production of a more prehensile form of hand,—must, however, be postponed until a vaster series of specimens shall be examined by anthropologists or zoologists."

Notes on the Homologies of the Trilobites. By Mr. C. Spence Bate.—A valuable memoir, which is about to be communicated to the Royal Society; we shall, therefore, defer our abstract.

On the Geographical Distribution of Animal Life. By Mr. A. R. Wallace.—The author called attention to the six geographical regions established by Dr. Sclater (*Proc. Lin. Soc.*, Feb. 1858) for ornithology—viz., 1st, The Neotropical, comprising South America and the West Indies; 2nd, the Nearctic, including the rest of North America; 3rd, the Palearctic, composed of Europe, Northern Asia to Japan, and Africa, north of the Desert; 4th, the Ethiopian, which contains the rest of Africa and Madagascar; 5th, the Indian, containing Southern Asia and the western half of the Malay Archipelago; and 6th, the Australian, which comprised the eastern half of the Malay Islands, Australia, and most of the Pacific Islands. It was stated that these regions would apply almost equally well to mammalia, reptiles, land-shells, and insects—excepting some exceptional cases, which it was thought would render these regions inapplicable to zoology generally. These exceptional cases were—1st, That the Batrachians of Japan are Palearctic, agreeing with the birds, &c., but the snakes are altogether Indian, as pointed out by Dr. Günther in his paper on the geographical distribution of reptiles (*Proc. Zool. Soc.*, 1858, p. 373); 2nd, that the mammalia of North Africa are not European like the birds; 3rd, that the insects of the Moluccas and New Guinea are generally of Indian forms, while the birds and mammals are Australian; and, 4th, that the insects of Chili are of North Temperate and Australian forms, while the birds and mammals are mostly of true South American groups. These cases were treated successively; and it was shown that the statement as to the mammals of North Africa was incorrect, and that they really very strongly confirmed the evidence of the birds and reptiles as to that country being Palearctic. In the other cases the anomalies of distribution were explained as being due to special exceptional circumstances, which should not invalidate the general accuracy and usefulness of these divisions. The discrepancies in the distribution of plants, which, while often agreeing with those of insects, were much

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greater, were supposed to be in a great measure due to the adventitious action of the glacial epoch and of floating ice. In conclusion, naturalists were called upon to furnish detailed information as to the agreement or discrepancies of this system of geographical regions in the groups to which they paid special attention, so that a final conclusion might be arrived at as to the advisability of adopting them for general use.

On the Variation of Species as pointing to Western Asia as the Centre of the Palearctic Area of Creation. By the Rev. H. B. Tristram.—The author said he had collected a few facts on the variation of species pointing to Western Asia as the palearctic area of creation; but Mr. Wallace's magnificent epitome of all that science had yet attained in respect to the variations and limits of the different groups had anticipated a great deal of what he was about to advance. His only idea at the first was to supplement Mr. Wallace's views by going somewhat more into detail on the question of these centres of dispersion. No one would suppose that the creation or development of animals had gone on simultaneously all over one region, so as to exclude the idea of animals or insects first appearing in some particular centre under certain circumstances, and thence gradually expanding themselves wherever the situation was best adapted to their habitation. His idea was that they could trace through the whole of the palearctic region, from Ireland to Japan, some predominant forms, varying in greater or less degrees, and that, whilst the variations were generally longitudinal, the identical forms were preserved latitudinally. Amongst the instances he quoted were the pied wagtail, the yellow wagtail, the green woodpecker, and the azure winged magpie. In these groups, and in many others, there appeared to be an intensity of coloration and a perfection of type near the meridian of the Caucasus, from which there was gradual and uniform deflection east and west, the species or races varying similarly, but not uniformly, on each side of that meridian, until, in western Europe, we come to forms sometimes identical with and always correspondent to the forms of China, and those of the British Isles answering to the varieties of Japan. Possibly the warm ocean-currents affecting both insular groups had had a similar effect on the coloration and variation of species. We find thus the type *Motacilla lugubris* in the Caucasus, and a strictly correspondent parallelism of five or six species or races eastward and westward, till we come to the corresponding extremes *Motacilla Yarellii* in Britain, and *Motacilla ocellaris* in Japan. A similar rule of variation would apply to sixteen other genera of birds which were enumerated, and which, he believed, might be indefinitely extended. The universality of some species did not, he thought, tell much against his theory, because those which did occur universally, or almost universally, as the snipe and osprey, had such powers of locomotion that they could from one centre disperse themselves in all directions. In regard to land-shells the same rule appeared to apply. Of course in shells it was very difficult to ascertain the whole of the species to be discovered in the Caucasian and North Persian district, because it had not been much worked; but, taking the western region, there was not a single shell in Ireland which was not to be found in England, and not one in England that was not, with some few exceptions, to be found in Germany; but the number of species in England more than doubled the number in Ireland, and the number in Germany more than doubled the number in England. Thus they found the species largely increasing as they went towards the East, wherever there was sufficient lime for the creatures to form their shell; and, while very few of our English species were lost, new ones were continually found. The paper entered at considerable length into the details of the genera of land-shells, and their longitudinal variations, especially *Helix* and *Clausilia*. What he wished to submit was, that the variation of species, taking the instances of some of our most familiar birds, the general geography of zoology pointed out that, in the palearctic region, Central Asia was the centre from which they had passed eastward and westward. The information upon which he went was very scanty; but, such as it was, he laid it before the Section, hoping that the idea would be further worked out, and that the effect would be to prevent the eternal splitting of species, by a calm examination of their geographical extent and area, and their origin and development.

Mr. Newton believed Mr. Tristram's facts borne out, but could not agree with his inferences. The similitude between the British and Japanese forms was very remarkable.

Mr. Stainton confirmed Mr. Tristram's remarks as to *Lepidoptera*. All of the species but five which occurred in Ireland occurred also in England, and those which occurred in England occurred in Germany; but, as in England we had twice as many as in Ireland, so in Germany they had about four times as many as there were in England, apparently showing a migration from the east to the west. In insects, however, he could not say how much of this was owing to climatic causes. Though the climate was not generally favourable to insect life, there were more butterflies in the north of Europe than in England. He did not think we are at present possessed of sufficient data to come to a conclusion.

Sir W. Jardine expressed an opinion adverse to Mr. Tristram's conclusions.

Mr. Wallace believed that Mr. Tristram's facts, and in some measure his conclusions, were perfectly correct. With regard to the great number of birds, and he believed the same thing would apply to a great extent to insects and mammalia, they might very likely have sprung from the centre referred to; but he thought they must take the term "centre of creation" in a different sense from that which persons might be disposed to put upon it. He could not believe that, at successive eras of the earth's history, animals and plants came into existence at so many particular periods, and were left to find their position from thence. The extreme irregularities would lead them to have doubts upon the subject, for sometimes certain species were found extending over a large track of country, and frequently a little island had species of its own. He believed that the solution was to be found in the description which Sir Charles Lyell, in his "Antiquity of Man," had given of the changes which Great Britain and Ireland, and all western Europe had undergone.

SUB-SECTION D.

On the Physiological Properties of the Nitrite of Amyle. By Dr. Richardson.—After stating the circumstances under which the nitrite became an object of study in his hands, Dr. Richardson said that the first remarkable fact was that the nitrite when inhaled produced an immediate effect on the heart, increasing the action of the region more powerfully than any other known agent. As the action of the heart rises, the surface of the skin becomes red, and the face assumes a light crimson colour. It furthermore excites the breathing, and produces a breathlessness like that caused by sharp running or rowing; given in large inhalations to animals it produces death. In the blood the nitrite produces darkness of colour, but does not materially interfere with coagulation in the body. In the lungs it excites congestion; in the brain slight congestion. It causes no severe spasm and no sickness. After entering into certain other details, Dr. Richardson remarked upon the effect produced by the nitrite in the lower animals and frogs, which led to suspended animation, which could be maintained for so long a time as nine days, with perfect after-recovery. This fact was of historical interest. The ancients had stated that there was a poison which, taken one day, would not take effect until some future day. This statement, long considered as a myth, had within the present year been shown to be true by Dr. Letheby, who had discovered a poison which really produced this phenomenon. In like manner the ancients had an idea that there were medicines which would for a time suspend life. The proceeding of the Friar in giving Juliet the distilled liquor, to wit. The next point discussed by Dr. Richardson had reference to the mode of action of this poison. Were the effects produced through the blood or by the nerves directly? The author said that he had been led to the conclusion from previous experiments that all poisons were brought into action through the blood; but this very commonly accepted theory did not explain the immediate powerful action which follows the inhalation of the minutest dose of the nitrite. He thought, therefore, that the action was immediate on the nervous system, and that an action transferred to the filaments of nerves surrounding the arteries paralysed the vessels, on which the heart, moderately acting, injected them, caused the peculiar redness of the skin, and the other phenomena that had been narrated. Dr. Richardson, in conclusion, said that nitrite of amyle, like chloroform twenty years ago, was to be considered as a physiological curiosity of profoundest interest. It might by its action suggest the cause of trance, and of what was called hysterical unconsciousness. It might explain the mode by which certain analogous substances produce powerful effects on the organism. It had been suggested—naturally suggested—that in fainting, as from loss of blood or fear, the inha-

lation of the nitrite of amyle might be of service. He, the author, would not at the present moment recommend its use in medicine, because of the intensity of its action. This last point was at the present time under his inquiry, and he would report further results at the next meeting of the Association.

The President advised that it should be constantly kept before the mind that these experiments had been exclusively made upon cold-blooded animals.

Dr. Richardson remarked that Dr. Letheby has experimented upon dogs.

The President was not aware of this, but still contended that many warm-blooded animals ought to be experimented upon before any positive conclusions were drawn. He should be glad to know if any one present could confirm the allegation that, in cases of choke-damp in coal-pits, men had boldly rushed to the rescue of their fellows, and had succeeded without apparent danger, but had died in the course of two or three days in consequence?

Mr. Thorpe said that such cases had come under his own observation in Derbyshire.

Dr. Richardson said that the circulation of the frog to which he had referred had entirely stopped, the heart having been watched very carefully. Singularly enough, the heart began beating after three days, and then ceased again for some days before reviving its functions.

On the Reason why the Stomach is not Digested by its own Secretion during Life. By Dr. Pavy.—This paper has been communicated to the Royal Society, and has been published in their Proceedings.

SECTION E.

Geographical Notes on the Island of Formosa. By Mr. R. Swinhoe, H.M. Consul at Taiwan.

On the Ethnology of the Island of Formosa. By Mr. R. Swinhoe, H.M. Consul at Taiwan.—A paper read in April last before the Ethnological Society. (See Vol. I., pp. 341.)

On the Ethnology of Ceylon, referring especially to its Singalese and Tamil inhabitants. By Mutu Coomara Swamy.—The author commenced by saying that the three millions of inhabitants of Ceylon might be classified under the heads of European, Asiatic, and Eurasian. The former consist chiefly of English, Irish, and Scotch emigrants, employed in the civil and military service or on the plantations, and the two latter of tribes which were described at length by the author.

On the Central Argentine Railway from Rosario to Cordova, and across the Cordillera of the Andes. By Mr. W. Wheelwright.—This railway commences at the city of Rosario, in the province of Santa Fé, on the right bank of the La Plata, in latitude 32° 56', south longitude 61° 30' west, and about 250 miles above Buenos Ayres by the channel route, which is navigable for ships of a large size, and has a depth of 16 feet of water; it possesses a very fine harbour, and all the elements of prosperity, and is the great commercial entrepôt of the interior provinces. Here the steamers which ply between Montevideo, Buenos Ayres, and Paraguay, and those engaged in commerce with Corrientes and other commercial points, stop, while almost a daily intercourse by steamers is kept up between this port and Buenos Ayres. From Rosario the railway will pursue its course in a north-west direction over those vast and fertile plains to Cordova, the central city of the plains, 247 miles, and thus will form the great trunk line, having upon its south and west the provinces of Mendoza, San Juan, San Luis, and the interior of the province of Buenos Ayres, whose high roads all concentrate upon the line of railway about midway; on the north are the provinces of Tucuman, Santiago del Estero, Jujury, Catamarca, and Rioja, with all their roads concentrating at Cordova, and thus forming one of the most extraordinary combinations to be found in the annals of railways. The railway is a work of great magnitude, and is intended to go over mountains at an elevation of 16,023 feet.

On the so-called Celtic Languages in reference to the Question of Race. By Mr. J. Crawford.—A paper read at the Ethnological Society in June last.

On the Celtic Languages. By Mr. R. S. Charnock.—The author commenced by stating that, having had an opportunity of reading Mr. Crawford's lecture before attending the meetings of the Association, he should reply to it in detail. Mr. Crawford stated that, when between two or more languages there was a substantial phonetic or grammatical agreement, they might be pronounced cognate. In the very next paragraph, however, he laid down a very different proposition—namely, that the words which most distinctly proved

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languages to be cognate were conjunctions, &c.—words, in fact, which could not be constructed. He would not quarrel with Mr. Crawford for using the term German in describing the origin of five-sixths of our English language, when doubtless Anglo-Saxon was intended. The Norman element, instead of being one-sixth, probably did not constitute a fiftieth part of the language. On the question of grammatical structure he combated the notion that the leading languages of Europe, ancient and modern, had all sprung out of a dead language of India, and also the proposition that the Siamese was a monosyllabic language, and contended that race could never to a certainty be determined by language. It would be considered absurd in a man who, having given cogent reasons for not visiting Rome, forthwith started for that city. But Mr. Crawford, after going to the trouble of arguing that the boasted test of an agreement in the mere structural form of language is inadmissible, proceeded, nevertheless, to compare the Gaelic and Welsh with the view of showing that in point of structure they were entirely different languages. Again, after stating that the formation of compound words by the help of prepositions was a distinguishing characteristic of Indo-Germanic or Aryan languages, and amongst them of the Sanscrit, Gaelic, and Welsh, Mr. Crawford argued that no such manner of compounding words was known to either of these languages. This assertion was inexcusable, for, if he had searched the dictionaries of the last two languages, he would soon have found that, in upwards of one-third of the words, the first syllable was a prefix. Mr. Charnock quoted numerous instances to prove this, and then contended that the English language was not of German origin, but a language which was principally based upon Greek and Latin, derived partly through Saxon and Norman-French, and partly direct from the two former languages. After criticizing other portions of Mr. Crawford's paper, the author concluded by stating that the arguments adduced by the former were most inconclusive and illogical, and totally unworthy of the author of the very able dissertation on the Malay language.

On the Physical Geography of Guatemala. By Mr. Osbert Salvin.—A descriptive paper compiled from journals kept by the author and Mr. F. Goodman in 1861-2. It does not call for an abstract.

SECTION F.

On Transportation in connexion with Colonization. By Colonel Torrens.—“It is not without diffidence that I come forward to oppose the conclusions arrived at by the majority of a Royal Commission upon this most important question; but I am impelled to do so by strong convictions arrived at, not upon the testimony of others, but from my own observations during a recent visit to the penal settlements, and in a colony adjacent thereto, in which I had the honour to hold the commission of the peace for more than twenty years, during a great portion of which period I was a member of the Executive and Legislative Councils. I am further emboldened in this course by finding irreconcilable contradictions in the report itself, and seeing that the commissioners differ amongst themselves upon the most important points. . . . I am also aware that this Commission has ignored or rejected evidence of the highest value, tendered upon unimpeachable sources, but opposed to their foregone conclusions. If there was one man whose evidence upon the subject-matter of their inquiry it was important to secure, that man was Sir Henry Young, who had enjoyed peculiar opportunities for acquiring accurate information upon the question in all its bearings. . . . No less valuable would have been the evidence of Sir Charles Cooper, who for nearly a quarter of a century had filled the office of Chief Justice of South Australia. . . . Irrespective of the general policy which favours the extradition of criminals on whatever conditions, transportation is advocated on three grounds:—1st, ‘As a formidable deterrent to those lapsing into crime;’ 2d, ‘As having reformatory influence on criminals;’ 3d, ‘As an advantageous mode of founding colonies.’ We will examine the question under each of these aspects. And first as ‘deterrent.’ Capt. Gambies, Director of Convict Prisons, who has had the management of transportation to Western Australia during the last six years, informs the Commissioners (queries 4324, 4334, 4336, 4338-9) that ‘transportation as now conducted has no deterring effect.’ Sir Walter Crofton, chairman of the directors of convict prisons in Ireland, advises the Commissioners—‘all classes of convicts that I have ever heard of look forward with satisfaction to being sent to a penal colony; and I put it forward now to pre-

vent the idea gaining ground that we are going to deter serious offenders by sending them to Western Australia.’ Notwithstanding this there may be some who concur in the views of Colonel Henderson, Comptroller of Convicts in Western Australia (queries 6132 and 6955), that ‘the great punishment consists in the convicts being removed from the land of their birth, and from all their associations.’ . . . But, as we see the brave men who expose their lives for the protection of our Indian Empire cheerfully, and for a very small stipend, submitting themselves to this pain, superadded to that of residence in a tropical climate, for a period longer on the average than that of penal servitude in the salubrious climate of Australia . . . we at once dismiss an argument based upon the assumption that a sensibility to the ties of country and of kindred characterizes the criminal class . . . we will, therefore, proceed to consider the nature and effect of the punishment inflicted on the convict after arrival in the penal settlement. From the year 1788 to 1852 every conceivable form of penal discipline was tried in New South Wales, Tasmania, and Norfolk Island—the Road Gang System, the Solitary System, the Separate System, the Assignment System, the Probation System, the Macorrochie, or Mark System; and the result of this sixty-four years’ experimenting proved an entire failure, so far as regards the creation of a ‘formidable deterrent;’ not that punishment, more or less severe, was not inflicted under each of these systems, but because, by a perverse ingenuity, that punishment was inflicted at the Antipodes beyond the ken of those upon whom it was designed to operate as a deterrent. The farmer plants his scarecrow on the land to be protected, and not at the extremity of his farm; but we have reversed this policy; and hence, as prizes in the lottery are noised abroad, while the numerous blanks are never heard of, so the criminal class received frequent reports of successes in life and fortunes realized, in some instances by honest industry, but in the great majority of cases by resumption, with improved skill and caution of those tactics which, in the first instance, were rewarded by free passage to the land of high wages and large profits. . . . It may be imagined that, profiting by this experience, some more formidable punishment would have been introduced upon the resumption of transportation in 1855. I shall, therefore, as briefly as possible describe the system pursued in the penal settlement of Western Australia. The convict, on arrival, undergoes solitary confinement; and this, the only portion of the system that can, without a gross abuse of terms, be designated formidable, is doled out to all alike, without regarding degrees of criminality, for the uniform period of nine months. This brief period of punishment over, the convict is thenceforth in a position, having regard as well to immediate physical requirements as to future prospects, far superior to that of the honest labourer of this country. With some thirty or forty of his comrades, under the guidance of a constable, usually chosen from the gang, he is marched into the interior, where he is to sojourn for a period of from one to five years, proportioned by term of his sentence, which period may, however, be reduced one-fourth in case of good conduct, and is also shortened by deducting four months spent on the voyage. There he is comfortably huddled, well clothed, and fed with an abundance of bread, beef, mutton, tea, sugar, &c., varied occasionally by game of his own taking, or procured from the natives. The daily labour exacted is light, not more than is calculated to promote healthy digestion and sound sleep. The evenings are passed agreeably round the camp-fires, with pipes and tea, ‘the cup which cheers, but not inebriates,’ whilst some bold cracksmen recount his deeds of burglary and violence, stirring the spirit of his auditors to emulate his daring, ‘and oft the merry song goes round, and oft the jest.’ Nor is improvement lost sight of in those hours of relaxation. The garotters’ handicraft is playfully exhibited in the harmless practical joke, and the exquisitely delicate touch of the professional pickpocket is kept in practice by abstracting pebbles, deposited for that purpose in his neighbour’s pouch. The third stage commences, and our convict is thrown upon his own resources as a ticket-of-leave man, for the space of one to four years, according to his original sentence, with the restriction that he must not roam beyond the limits of his police district (comprising an area larger than Yorkshire), and cautioned against exposing himself to the night air after ten o’clock. To console him under these restrictions, he is assured that in case of sickness he will be supplied with medical aid, and main-

tained at the expense of the mother-country, and that, as stated by Captain Kennedy, he may obtain employment ‘at far higher wages than those of the honest labourer in this country, may soon raise himself to a position of affluence, and himself become the employer of labour and the owner of flocks and herds.’ During this stage of his curriculum the convict is no longer pained by the severance of family ties; a liberal government will, in compliance with his request, send out his wife and children at the expense of the mother-country. If, however, the effects of time in weakening the family affections, or the formation of other connexions, should render their society irksome or inconvenient, he is privileged to leave his wife and children to be supported by his parish in the old country. Neither are bachelor convicts any longer condemned to celibacy. A paternal government undertakes, at the cost of this country, to supply an adequate number of young Englishwomen to wive the semi-emancipated convicts. Nay, so kindly considerate are the authorities to secure the convict from annoyance, that an act has been passed by the colonial legislature, making it penal to speak disparagingly of the convict status in presence of a conditionally-pardoned or ticket-of-leave man. After a couple of years spent under these not very grievous restraints, our convicts obtains a conditional pardon. Exposure to the night air will no longer be dangerous; he is free to range beyond the not very narrow limits of his police district, or, should he prefer it, to remove to the adjacent colonies, where the cities of Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney afford an ample field for the practice of his former profession, and where, if he has acquired wealth and is a clever fellow, he may get into Parliament, and possibly become one of her Majesty’s Ministers. To prove that there is no exaggeration in the picture I have drawn, I will state an actual case, selecting purposely that of a notorious criminal. Redpath, sentenced for life for offences committed under all the concomitants that can aggravate crime and render it inexcusable, arrived in Western Australia 23d Nov., 1858, and was discharged on ticket-of-leave 3d of June, 1861; during the interval, two and a half years, with the exception of nine months’ initiatory stage of solitary confinement, he was employed as a clerk in the government offices, and entitled to live in luxury in a country where, as stated by Captain Kennedy (query 2512), ‘there is very little shame attached to his status.’ At the expiration of four years he will be free to go where he pleases out of England—freed from even the figment of restraint to which he is at present subject. Assuredly, a system such as this fails in the primary requirement of all punishment. ‘It is not formidable to deter from crime;’ but, on the contrary, will, in the judgment of most men, be deemed to hold out a premium on crime. The advocate for the extrusion of criminals as an abstract principle would do well to consider that it is possible to remove ill weeds by a procedure that will sow the germ of an increased crop, and learn ere it be too late that it is sound policy to consume them where they stand. The reformation of the criminal, though a secondary, is, nevertheless, an important consideration in determining the eligibility of any punishment; and in this report the absence of anything really formidable in transportation, as at present conducted, is sufficient of itself to insure failure. . . . The reformatory element, therefore, must first exist at all to be sought for in the concomitant circumstances of transportation. We will consider these. During the four months’ voyage to Western Australia, discipline is of necessity relaxed. Criminals are horded together without discrimination; and the unfortunate man who, in a moment of temptation, has given way to passion, contrary to the general tenor of his character, is associated with the reprobate, hardened by a life of crime and debauchery. All experience proves that such association blinds those subjected to it into a homogeneous mass—not by the purification of the baser sort, but by debasing the comparatively pure. We are not left to mere abstract speculation on this point, we have actual results before us. In 1838, after transportation had been fifty years in operation, rumours of fearful demoralization reached this country. Archbishop Whately in the Lords, and Sir William Molesworth in the Commons, forced on investigation; and the disclosures of depravity engendered by the system were so revolting as to render its abandonment imperative. Transportation to New South Wales was at once suspended, and a new experiment in penal discipline introduced in Tasmania and Norfolk Island. This scheme, though it had some philosophical appearance, instead of promoting reformation amongst

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the convicts, drove them into a state of chronic revolt, while the ticket-of-leave men became the terror of the community; and at length the further sustentation of the system became impossible, when, in 1846, the colonists of Tasmania threatened to leave the island in a body unless transportation were abandoned. The revolting character of the details recorded in the report of the committee of 1838 on transportation, made it practically a sealed book; and, in the general ignorance upon the subject, the criminal extrusionists again prevailed, and in 1855 transportation was again revived, Western Australia being selected as the site where, ignoring experience, the experiment was to be repeated. The fruits of the system there have not yet had time to become 'rotten ripe,' yet they are sufficiently apparent, and Captain Kennedy informs the recent Commission (query 2369) that 'he has no doubt whatever its corrupting influence deteriorates the morals of the officers.' Its exhalation sufficed to taint the moral atmosphere of the adjacent colony of South Australia to such an extent that within three years after the renewal of transportation, over 1000 conditionally-pardoned and ticket-of-leave men found their way from Western Australia to Adelaide. I held the commission of the peace there at the time, and can endorse the testimony given by Mr. Newland, the police magistrate, respecting the rapid increase of violent assaults, robberies, and burglarious crimes, before but little known amongst us. These samples of the reformatory influence of transportation went about in gangs at night, stopping and plundering the citizens, . . . until we passed the Extradition Act, condemning to three years' penal servitude every convict found in the colony after the prescribed day. The effect was immediate, and convictions, which, prior to that Act, had risen to 1 in 1000 inhabitants, fell, in the next year, to under 1 in 2000. The Commissioners had abundant evidence of the effects experienced in this country from the transportation system. The Rev. J. Davies, twenty years ordinary at Newgate, informs them that the effect produced by the association of prisoners is very bad and very prejudicial; the change from associated imprisonment to solitary confinement makes an immense difference. The thieves of London were more under the direction of returned convicts formerly than they are under the direction of ticket-of-leave men now. The proportion of men who, after undergoing penal discipline under the English system, return to bad courses of life is smaller than it used to be under the transportation system, and the alteration has been very beneficial. By transportation you would only remove the evil. If you could conquer the criminals in England it would be better. By removing the evil you put it somewhere else; and what would the people abroad say? It might not suffice that reason and experience have shown transportation to be a failure, both as deterrent and as reformatory, had not the Commission received in the evidence of Sir Walter Crofton a complete solution of the problem referred for their consideration, as is admitted by the earlier portion of their report, wherein they recommend a system almost identical with that which, under the management of Sir Walter, has proved so effectual in Ireland. But, in the face of the evidence of the directors of convict prisons, Ireland; by that of the directors of convict prisons, England; and by the Ordinary of Newgate, and in direct contradiction to their own statements, page 54 of the report—the Commissioners recommend that, 'with the exception of those who are physically or otherwise unfit for it, all convicts sentenced to penal servitude for any term of years should be sent to Western Australia.' Neither on the ground of economy can this recommendation be defended. In order to avoid the frightful evils which arose in the older penal settlements, the Commissioners recommend that a number of single women, equal to the number of male convicts, should be sent out at the expense of this country. Thus, with the passage of the convicts themselves and of guards to control them, an expenditure of at least £75 would be incurred for each convict." Colonel Torrens next examines this question in reference to its alleged advantages as a mode of founding colonies, and states that, "contrasting the progress of the free colony of South Australia with that of the penal settlement of New South Wales, the former was founded at a cost to the mother-country of £200,000, instead of £2,200,000, and, instead of 10,500 inhabitants, principally male convicts, she had at the date of her majority nearly 100,000 free citizens, and instead of being dependent on the mother-country for subsistence, she exported to New South Wales and other places bread stuffs to the value of a quarter of a million, and this

notwithstanding very inferior natural advantages in soil and climate. But the evidence as regards the experiment in Western Australia is equally conclusive against transportation. The petition of the colonists states, 'By admitting convict labour, we have allowed our free mechanics, artisans, and labourers to be gradually driven out of the field; and our labouring population may now be stated to be of a far inferior description to that which originally existed here;' and this statement is borne out by the figures in the Government statistical tables, showing that, whereas the population in 1850 was 5886 souls, to which were added in the nine ensuing years, at the cost of this country, 5169 convicts, and 6364 free emigrants, making a total of 17,419, yet the census at that date gave but 14,837 inhabitants—showing that 2582, or rather, allowing for the excess of births over deaths, that at least 3000 free settlers abandoned Western Australia; that the stream of free emigration kept up at the cost of this country was like pouring water into a sieve; and that, despite the alleged advantages of transportation, that settlement was being abandoned by the non-criminal portion of its population. It is alleged that the inhabitants of Western Australia, who must be admitted to be the best judges of their own affairs, are in favour of transportation. This, however, is not strictly correct: the working classes, or the mass of the people, have not petitioned, but men, interested in land speculation, who, finding their capital locked up in a country destitute of adequate resources, would seek, in the lavish expenditure of British taxes, the source of a factitious prosperity which may afford them a market for their land, and enable them to clear out of the country. In conclusion, I would state that, excluding, of course, convicts and their families, there are not more than 6000 inhabitants in Western Australia to speak on this question; and, assuming them to be of one mind, which, however, is not the case, I would ask—Is their desire to submit themselves to the evils of admitting the worst class of society amongst them, for the sake of the annual expenditure, to prevail against the indignant protest of a million and a half of loyal and independent settlers in the other colonies? . . . These Commissioners have completely ignored the important question put to them by the Rev. Ordinary of Newgate—'What will the people in Australia think of it?' I will reply for them. I have lived amongst these colonists for 20 years, and thoroughly understand their sentiments upon this question, and whilst the statistical tables of Western Australia prove that three-fourths of the exiles and conditionally-pardoned leave that settlement, and their presence in the adjacent colonies is only too sensibly indicated by the increase of crime, the nominal limitation of transportation to Western Australia is felt to be a flimsy pretence; that, in all its baneful influences, transportation to Western Australia means transportation to the Australian colonies at large. It would take much to shake the loyalty and attachment of the Australian people; but . . . the minister who ventures to act upon the report of the 'Royal Commission on Transportation and Penal Servitude' will incur the responsibility of alienating the affections of a million and a half of her Majesty's most loyal subjects, and will jeopardize the integrity of the colonial empire."

A Statistical Account of the Parish of Bellingham. By Mr. W. H. Tarlton.—A marked change had taken place in the agriculture of this parish within the last twenty-five years by the conversion of arable into pasture land; a similar change, the writer stated, had taken place very generally in Northumberland in the same period.

On the Effects of the Recent Gold Discoveries. By H. Fawcett, Esq.—Mr. Fawcett's discourse and the discussion thereupon have been fully reported, and the latter is being continued in the daily press.

SECTION G.

On the Prevention of Fouling of Ships' Bottoms. By Dr. White.—The author proposes a composition made of equal parts of powdered quick-lime, of fat, and of oil, mixed and rubbed together. It is laid on the first time, when cold, by means of a short-haired painter's brush, on the surface, while high and dry; but when afloat it must be applied by means of a diver's hand. This composition is a kind of soap, which is insoluble in water, and which undergoes a slow chemical change, the result of which is that, after a few months, it has become rather less soft, and more easily separable in the form of flakes or scales from the submerged surface of the ship than it was when fresh applied.

The author has tried a combination of fat and oil, and of fat and white lead, and has determined that the lime-soap is the article best adapted for the purpose. It can be laid on smoothly in the air, and also applied under the water with great facility. From experiments made by Dr. White, he thinks that the capacity for speed of an iron vessel will be increased fourteen per cent. by the use of this soap. The author also proposes that, before the lime-soap is applied, a strip of sheet zinc should be fixed on the upper part of the flat surface of each row of iron plates below the light-load line-mark, by means of iron screws about a quarter of an inch in length, with broad heads, taking care that some part, at least, of the surfaces of contact of the iron and zinc are clean, as shown by the metallic lustre. The surface of the zinc in contact with the iron which is to be protected should be equal to at least one-sixteenth part of the surface of iron to be protected. The zinc corrodes; and therefore it will be necessary from time to time to fix it closely by the screws, and to replace it when necessary, all of which can be done by divers. Aluminium protects iron from corrosion by electro-metallic action, in the same manner as zinc does; but a smaller area of surface of aluminium will have an effect equal to a larger extent of zinc. The higher price of aluminium will probably prevent the use of it for this purpose.

On the Proportions of Ships of least Skin-Resistance for a given Speed and Displacement. By Professor Rankine, F.R.S.—Referring to a previous paper read to the British Association in 1861, in which the author had stated the results of a theoretical investigation of the "skin-resistance" of ships, and verified those results by a comparison with those of experiments, and to the statement that the theory gives, for the proportion of length to breadth which produces least skin-resistance with a given displacement and speed, that of seven to one,—the author now states that this is the case when the figures and proportions of the cross-sections are given, so that the draught of water bears a fixed proportion to the breadth. But, when the draught of water has a fixed absolute value, the theory gives a somewhat different result; for the proportion of length to breadth which produces the least skin-resistance is found to increase as the draught of water becomes shallower.

An Investigation of Plane Water-Lines for Ships. By Professor Rankine, F.R.S.—This paper contains an abstract of a mathematical investigation communicated to the Royal Society. By the term "plane water-line" is meant one of those curves which a particle of liquid describes in flowing past a solid body, when such flow takes place in plane layers. Such curves are suitable for the water-lines of a ship; for, during the motion of a well-formed ship, the vertical displacements of the particles of water are small, compared with the dimensions of the ship; so that the assumption that the flow takes place in plane layers, though not absolutely true, is sufficiently near the truth for practical purposes. The author refers to the researches of Professor Stokes (*Cambr. Trans.* 1842) *On the Steady Motion of an Incompressible Fluid*, and of Professor William Thomson (made in 1858, but not yet published), as containing the demonstration of the general principles of the flow of a liquid past a solid body. Every figure of a solid past which a liquid is capable of flowing smoothly, generates an endless series of water-lines, which become sharper in their forms as they are more distant from the primitive water-line of the solid. The only exact water-lines whose forms have hitherto been completely investigated, are those generated by the cylinder, in two dimensions, and by the sphere, in three dimensions. In addition to what is already known of those lines, the author points out that, when a cylinder moves through still water, the orbit of each particle of water is one loop of an elastic curve. The profiles of waves have been used with success in practice as water-lines for ships, first, by Mr. Scot Russell (for the explanation of whose system the author refers to the *Transactions of the Institution of Naval Architects* for 1860-1-2), and afterwards by others. As to the frictional resistance of vessels having such lines, the author refers to his own papers; one read to the British Association in 1861, and printed in various engineering journals, and another read to the Royal Society in 1862, and printed in the *Philosophical Transactions*. The author proceeds to investigate and explain the properties of a class of water-lines, comprising an endless variety of forms and proportions. In each series of such lines, the primitive water-line is a particular sort of oval, characterized by this property, that the ordinate at any point of the oval is proportional to the angle between two lines drawn

from that point to two foci. Ovals of this class differ from ellipses, in being considerably fuller at the ends and flatter at the sides. The length of the oval may bear any proportion to its breadth, from equality (when the oval becomes a circle) to infinity. Each oval generates an endless series of water-lines, which become sharper in figure as they are further from the oval. In each of those derived lines, the excess of the ordinate at a given point above a certain minimum value, is proportional to the angle between a pair of lines drawn from that point to the two foci. There is thus an endless series of ovals, each generating an endless series of water-lines; and, amongst those figures, a continuous or "fair" curve can always be found, combining any proportion of length to breadth, from equality to infinity, with any degree of fulness or fineness of entrance, from absolute bluntness to a knife-edge. The lines thus obtained present striking likenesses to those at which naval architects have arrived through practical experience; and every successful model in existing vessels can be closely imitated by means of them, from a Dutch galliot to a racing-boat. Any series of water-lines, including the primitive oval, are easily and quickly constructed with the ruler and compasses. The following curves, traversing certain important points in the water-lines, are exactly similar for all water-lines of this class, and are easily and quickly constructed with the compasses. One is a hyperbola, which traverses all the points at which the motion of the particles, in still water, is at right angles to the water-lines. The other consists of the two branches of a curve of the fourth order. One of those branches traverses a series of points, at each of which the velocity of gliding of the particles of water along the water-line is less than at any other point on the same water-line. The other branch traverses a series of points, at each of which the velocity of gliding is greater than at any other point on the same water-line. The transverse axis of co-ordinates, so far as it lies within this branch, traverses a series of points of minimum velocity of gliding: from its intersection with the same branch onwards, it traverses a series of points of maximum velocity of gliding. Every water-line, complete from bow to stern, which passes within the point of intersection of the same branch with the transverse axis, has three points of minimum and two of maximum velocity of gliding; while every water-line which passes through or beyond that point has only two points of minimum and one of maximum velocity of gliding. Hence the latter class of lines causes less commotion in the water than the former. On the water-line which traverses the said point itself the velocity of gliding changes more gradually than on any other water-line having the same proportion of length to breadth. Water-lines possessing this character can be constructed with any proportion of length to breadth, from $\sqrt{3}$ (which gives an oval) to infinity. The finer of those lines are found to be nearly approximated to by wave-lines, but are less hollow at the bow than wave-lines are. The author shows how horizontal water-lines at the bow, drawn according to this system, may be combined with vertical plane lines of motion for the water at the stern, if desired by the naval architect. In this, as in every system of water-lines, a certain relation (according to a principle first pointed out by Mr. Scott Russell) must be preserved between the form and dimensions of the bow and the maximum speed of the ship, in order that the appreciable resistance may be wholly frictional and proportional to the square of the velocity (as the experimental researches of Mr. J. R. Napier and the author have shown it to be in well-formed ships), and may not be augmented by terms increasing as the fourth and higher powers of the velocity, through the action of vertical disturbances of the water.

ART.

ART IN PARIS: CHURCH RESTORATIONS AND DECORATIONS.

NOT only has the general aspect of Paris undergone the change which has been witnessed by the present generation, but the restoration of public edifices, palaces, and churches has been scrupulously effected. The aid of such talent, mental and executive, as is now to be found has been sought and liberally applied to the works in progress. If the result, in some cases, be not altogether satisfactory, we must remember that the art of the nineteenth century is not that of the thirteenth. We cannot successfully compete with those old master-builders, even in the details which they conceived, but left their workmen free to execute as it

seemed best to each individual intelligence. Each man was probably in his way an artist. In place of working and smoothing, and rounding and polishing the visage of a saint or devil till he had made a fair copy of an elaborate drawing—which we assume to have been the case in the restoration of the details of Notre-Dame—he struck out the thought with his chisel, and fixed it in the stone, rough and rude, but with a rare grace or devilish grin, as it might be. We must maintain the great heirlooms that have come down to us—at least, until we can do something better; and, rather than stand by with folded arms, sighing that restoration is another word for destruction, would it not be better to try to put a new spirit into our work, educate our workmen to more freedom, and, if possible, cease to be mere slavish admirers even of an all-glorious past? The French have certainly had few of our scruples. They have taken their Gothic buildings in hand, and set to work on a grand scale. While we have done a little bit of restoration here and there, moving slowly and with difficulty, partly from want of means, and partly from a praiseworthy and scrupulous desire to preserve rather than to renew, they have scarcely left a bit of old Gothic work in Paris; or, if they have, it has been scraped and cleaned, and in many cases, we must allow, prettified and spoiled. It remains to be seen what time will do—the great improver as well as the great destroyer of all architecture. If our neighbours have substituted the best work they can get for what was undeniably better, they have not destroyed or changed the noble proportions of their buildings; and we are more inclined to give them credit for a wise and liberal care than to blame them for unscrupulous destruction. One of the most carefully restored Gothic churches in Paris is that of St. Germain des Près. Did it belong to us in London, we should be justly proud of it. All Saints' in Margaret Street may in some respects be compared to it, although the French church is an old Gothic edifice and All Saints' is a modern erection. Both in the restored and the modern buildings colour and decoration have been largely employed, and the chief fresco-painter of each country has been engaged to carry out the intentions of the architects. We do not wish to institute any comparison, but to call attention to the fact that, while All Saints' is our single example of a beautifully decorated church, St. Germain des Près is but one of many in Paris which have either been built at a cost equal to or exceeding that of All Saints', or restored as elaborately as St. Germain des Près. The decoration of ecclesiastical edifices is better understood in England than in France. What has been done in our cathedrals has been usually more rightly done than the same class of work on the Continent. Our manufacture of stained glass is much improved, and is probably the best that can now be obtained; and our new Gothic churches, if somewhat lifeless and cheap-looking, are characterized by correctness and purity. But with this much we must be content for the present. The French school of painting has lent an aid to French architects, which has yet been granted to a very small extent by the English school to our own. We have probably more available talent than available means; but we are very short of both. In the meantime we are doing our best. Our younger architects are not mere money-grubbers, and we are no longer without painters capable of seconding their efforts, and of embellishing the blank spaces which have hitherto been usurped by plaster and whitewash. The works in the Protestant church of All Saints' and in the Roman Catholic church of St. John's are, we trust, but the small beginnings of a general application of fresco-painting to the ecclesiastical buildings of the country, as the frescoes at Westminster are the commencement of a new era in the decoration of our public edifices.

The works executed by M. Flandrin in the nave and in the apse and choir of St. Germain des Près are among the best productions of the later French school. They elicit from us the most sincere admiration for the purity of taste which distinguishes them, and for the great artistic faculty which has been so admirably cultivated yet so modestly displayed. The painter has kept to the conventional order which has obtained since it was adopted in the christianized basilicas and early Byzantine churches—with this difference, that, in place of the figure of Christ, he has substituted the symbols of the Evangelists. On either side are ranged the Apostles and Prophets. Two larger compositions on the opposite sides of the choir represent the triumphal entry of Christ into Jerusalem, and Christ bearing his

cross on the way to Calvary. The clerestory walls of the nave are divided into spaces, in which are painted subjects selected from Biblical history, having reference to the life and mission of our Lord. On the north side the subjects are: "The Sacrifice of Isaac," "Jonas cast up by the Whale," "Christ betrayed by Judas," "The Crucifixion," "The Resurrection of Christ," and "The Charge to Peter." M. Flandrin has not yet completed this side of the nave. On the south side we have: "The Sacrifice of Noah," "Moses and the Burning Bush," "The Passage of the Red Sea," "The Annunciation," "The Nativity," "The Wise Men's Offerings," "The Baptism of Christ," and "The Temptation." The general effect of these frescoes is very satisfactory. They do not stand as apart from, but as a part of, the church, the subordinate decoration of which appears to have been under the direction of the same mind. The consequence is, that we have here an example of the value of unity in church decoration which we hardly remember to have seen elsewhere. To attempt an elaborate criticism of M. Flandrin's works in this church would carry us beyond the limits of an ordinary article; but we may say that far more may be justly advanced in their praise than could be justly written in their condemnation. They are severe in style perhaps; but they are not lifeless, and are never weak. They possess some of the chief merits of fresco-painting, especially simplicity and breadth. In the power of expression which gives intense vitality, as in Raphael, to each individual figure of a composition, they are wanting; but, in the general power of expression, which conveys the meaning and sense of the story represented, they are by no means deficient. Few pictures have been painted in modern times superior to the two large compositions in the choir of this church; and, as far as we know, there is now no other living French painter who would be capable of performing such excellent work.

This is not the only church in Paris in which M. Flandrin has been at work. Rare and unflagging industry must indeed have been required to bring to a successful termination the decoration of St. Germain des Près; yet we are almost inclined to set in higher estimation the glorious procession of saints and martyrs which he has painted on the walls of the nave of St. Vincent de Paul. This is a modern church, built on the plan of the Roman basilicas. The decorations of the apse are by M. Picot. The colossal figure of our Lord occupies the central place: grouped around are the Prophets. On either side of the choir are ranged the Apostles; below is the figure of that great and good man who has been canonized under the name of St. Vincent de Paul, and who is represented as bringing the orphans and destitute children, and the sick and infirm, to whom his life on earth was devoted, to the footstool of his Master in heaven. By the way, we are inclined to think that the reputation of many good men has been greatly injured by their canonization as saints. The attention of the world has been diverted from the consideration of their virtues and works of love and charity to take up an attitude of opposition to the assumption which sets forth their belief in a dogma as of immeasurably greater importance. St. Vincent de Paul was a true saint; but his especial virtues have had little to do with M. Flandrin's paintings in the church dedicated to his memory—why we do not know, as his life would have afforded him abundant materials had he been disposed to use them. What he has done, however, is so beautiful that we can gladly accept it. He has covered the whole of the nave with a procession, on one side, of Christian martyrs, kings, doctors of the Church, &c., headed by the Apostles; on the opposite side with a similar procession of holy women and children, headed by virgin martyrs. The groups are separated by palm-trees. There is no confusion in the compositions, which have been treated as bassi relievi; but M. Flandrin has allowed full play to the charm of colour in his groups, and has been less bound by the laws he has imposed upon himself in the church of St. Germain des Près. The figure of St. Pelagia in white, that of the Magdalen, those of St. Clotilde and St. Eustachia in an azure robe, St. Elizabeth and the Baptist, and especially St. Felicità with her children, are among the most delightful and graceful works of the century. All are wending their way slowly and solemnly to the mysterious Christ seated in the dimly lighted apse. M. Flandrin has indeed shown us that these stone walls may become alive with speech, and that art such as his is of more account than some of our utilitarians are willing to admit.

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ART NOTES.

MR. VICTOR DELARUE announces for publication "The Monuments of Italy," a series of fifty-two large and beautiful photographs by MM. Bisson Frères of Paris, consisting of well-known subjects, many of them familiar through the engravings of Piranesi and Rossi, but here reproduced by these scientific photographers with a minuteness in the detail and an accuracy which those celebrated prints do not possess. Rome, Venice, Pisa, Florence, and Milan are the sources from whence these sun-painted pictures have been taken. They are sold separately at ten shillings each, mounted on cardboard, 18 inches by 15. The price of the fifty-two photographs, mounted, in a portfolio, is £23. 10s.

THREE of the plans sent in for the Hamburg Museum have been rewarded with prizes of 100 Fredericksd'or each: Van der Hude in Berlin, Professor Ludwig Lange in Munich, the architect of the Leipsic Museum, and A. Rosengarten in Hamburg are the successful competitors. The plan of the first-mentioned, Van der Hude, will be carried out.

THE "Uhlandsruhe," a building to be erected in memory of Uhland on the Altkönig, near Oberwesel, is approaching its completion. It is to have two towers, 36 feet high, a saloon 59 feet long, and several rooms for the attendants and for guests; and the entire cost will not exceed 6000 florins.

THE latest work of W. von Kaulbach is a painting representing "the German minstrel-hero," Körner, on horseback, his head crowned with oak leaves, holding in his right hand the sword, while his left embraces the lyre which rests on his left knee. A ribbon wound round the lyre, waving in the wind, bears the motto—

Das deutsche Lied, das deutsche Schwerdt,
Wir halten's lieb, wir halten's werth.

OF Kaulbach's Shakespeare-Album, the plates of which are executed in photography, three parts have been published by the Nicolaische Verlags-handlung in Berlin, illustrating "Macbeth," "The Tempest," and "King John."

MUSIC

THE NORWICH FESTIVAL.

ARTISTICALLY, the music festival of Norwich has a much higher value than that held at Worcester. Charity is the ostensible object of each meeting, but more regard for art is shown in the East than in the West of England. We described last week the accidental origin of the festivals held annually in some one of the three cathedral cities of Worcester, Hereford, and Gloucester. Although they have been held for at least a century and a half, they have as yet done little or nothing for art. The Norwich festivals, on the other hand, date from 1824 only; and at almost every one of the fourteen meetings which, including that just over, have now taken place, some important novelties have been produced. For the introduction into England of no less than three of Spohr's works—namely, "The Last Judgment," "Calvary," and "The Fall of Babylon"—for the composition of Herr Molique's "Abraham," of Mr. Benedict's "Undine," and of oratorios by Bexfield and Mr. Pierson, are we indebted to the Norwich festival. This year the managers have shown no diminution of activity. Two novelties of unequal merit have been produced with corresponding results. The one, an oratorio by Mr. Silas, met with almost universal condemnation, and the other, a cantata by Mr. Benedict, with as unequivocal a triumph.

In "Joash" Mr. Silas has found a subject admirably adapted for an oratorio; but he has been unfortunate in his librettist. It is true that, in taking *Athaliah* for his heroine, and showing her remorseful life and horrible death, Mr. Geo. Linley has challenged inevitable comparison with Racine; but, making every allowance for this disadvantage, we cannot commend him either for his treatment of the incidents or for the elegance of his verse. In a vaguely-expressed paragraph in the *résumé* of the oratorio, Mr. Linley explains that the sacred drama of "Joash" is "not modelled after the conventional or *conventicle* fashion of oratorio; nor has it been the intention of the librettist or composer to make sacred characters of *Athaliah* or the Priests of Baal, whereby a greater contrast has been produced with the music allotted to the graver personages in the work." It is scarcely worth while to point out the implied arrogance of this obscurely and imperfectly worded explanation. Dismissing the expression "*conventicle* fashion of oratorio" as rank nonsense, we must, in defiance of the modest author himself, defend

"Joash" on the ground that it is constructed on the plan of some of the best known oratorios extant, and that it is therefore, to all intents and purposes, "modelled after the conventional fashion." "Elijah," "Samson," "Judas Macabæus," "Solomon," and many others we could name, are to the full as much entitled to the epithet of "sacred drama" as "Joash;" and, indeed, an oratorio is nothing more nor less than a drama founded on a biblical subject. It is quite true that the composer has not made "sacred characters of *Athaliah* or of the Priests of Baal;" but, on the other hand, he has not made either *Joash* or *Jehoiadab* any more sacred; so that, whatever his intention may have been, he has failed to produce any contrast at all. In fact, the great fault of the work is that it is not in the least degree sacred or devotional in character; and, as it thus fails completely in its object, it is, in its present shape, scarcely worthy of serious criticism. There is a story of a dramatic author, whose tragedy had been refused at one theatre, transforming it into a comedy for the opposition establishment and achieving a *succès fou*. So, if Mr. Silas will change the *venue* of his oratorio, and bring it out as an English opera, we will promise to criticize it as it deserves.

To take seriatim the six and twenty "numbers" that make up Mr. Silas's oratorio, to point out those in which Mendelssohn's example has been most closely followed, to specify those in which crude harmonies and unmusical-like effects are most frequently to be found, and to particularize all that seem specially adapted to the operatic stage,—to enter, indeed, into any such uninteresting details would be but to waste our readers' time. It is doubtful, we imagine, if the work will ever be performed again (in its present shape at least); but there are a few pieces that merit to be rescued from the gulf of oblivion to which this "sacred drama" is already doomed. Two soprano airs will probably long outlive their less fortunate companions. These are: a prayer, for soprano in E major, placed in the mouth of *Zebiah*, "Suffer not, O Lord, that vice should reign;" and a solo for mezzo-soprano, "Teach me, O Lord," in which the infant *Joash* prays for guidance and help. The latter is introduced by the double-basses giving out the theme in unison—a somewhat vulgar device of which Mr. Silas seems to be particularly fond; while the former is, if we remember rightly, very effectively accompanied by the muted strings. Both have been inspired by previous examples, but both are flowing and melodious, and are characterized by a devotional feeling which is rare indeed in "Joash." These two airs lie well within the compass of ordinary voices, and, requiring no vocal agility, will doubtless be very acceptable both in the concert-hall and the drawing-room. A six-part chorus, the opening *fugato* of which is unaccompanied, "O worship the Lord," is also exceedingly well written—essentially sacred in character, and extremely impressive. Fluent and agreeable, if somewhat commonplace, melodies, clever points of instrumentation, and many proofs of assiduous study and thoughtful care, are to be met with in the work; but, as a whole, it is pretentious, unreal, and unsatisfactory. Of the solo-singers, Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, to whose lot fell the most grateful melodies, achieved the greatest success, singing throughout the morning with remarkable ability and feeling. To Mr. Weiss were given three operatic ballads, which must have made him half believe that he was on the boards of Covent Garden; while Madlle. Titiens and Miss Palmer were both suffering too severely from hoarseness to do more than mere justice to their parts. Mr. Silas himself, to the great discomfiture of his work, assumed the *bâton*.

In "Richard Cœur de Lion" librettist and composer have been equally successful. Mr. Oxford has invested the old subject with new interest, and his elegant lines have been set by Mr. Benedict with unvarying felicity. From the first bar of the brilliantly effective overture to the last of the final chorus, all is invariably graceful and captivating. We hope very soon to have an opportunity of hearing the work in some one of our London concert-rooms; and, indeed, we have not the slightest doubt but that it will become lastingly popular. For the present we will content ourselves with calling attention to the more successful pieces. Foremost among these we must reckon the two tenor airs. The first, a ballad with choral refrain, "I wander in search of a treasure," is eminently graceful, and most agreeably reminiscent, both in harmony and design, of *Eiley's* song in the "Lily of Killarney"—"In my wild mountain valley." The second is the air with which *Blondel* seeks to discover the lion-hearted king, to the suggestive words of which,

"Is into prison cast," Mr. Benedict has wedded a simple melody of rare beauty. The theme is then taken up by the baritone; and this gives rise to an admirably-written duet. One written for contralto, "What's all this?" is very bright and piquant; and a quaint song for the same voice, "A hundred years ago," demands special mention. A baritone *scena* for *Richard*, "My sight can pierce through my prison wall," the slow movement of which, agreeably to the sentiment of the words, succeeds the allegro, and a brilliant show-piece for soprano, "Gentle shade in thy robe of white arrayed," are both eminently effective in the concert-room; and the andante movement in each will probably become equally popular with qualified amateurs. A dashing soldiers' chorus in five-part harmony, breathing the true spirit of Weber, an engaging choral introduction in waltz-time, and a final chorus built upon the theme of *Blondel's* air, all display Mr. Benedict's ability for writing for the voice no less than his imaginative powers; while his overture is instrumented with remarkable skill and felicity. To the work ample justice was done by Madlle. Titiens, Miss Palmer, Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Santley, and by orchestra and chorus—every performer engaged seeming to strive his very best to do honour to the conductor of the festival.

The failure of both the oratorios of which we have spoken has again raised the oft-mooted question if foreigners are encouraged in England to the detriment of national composers. Many musicians, in their justifiable anger at the partiality evinced in this instance, inveigh in strong terms against the indiscriminate favour shown to strangers; while others, with more philosophy, maintain that in England, the most liberal country in the world, talent, whencesoever it may come, should be sure of a generous welcome. It seems to us that the three works produced at Worcester and Norwich give the most satisfactory answer to the question. While protests against the favoritism shown to MM. Schachner and Silas are rife, we have not heard the slightest complaint of the opportunity of distinction given to Mr. Benedict. *Il n'y a rien qui réussit comme le succès*. Worldly as this maxim is, if we apply it in the present instance we shall not be very far wrong. It was right to produce the cantata because it has succeeded, and it was wrong to produce the oratorios because they have failed. In other words, it was unjust to give commissions to the oratorio writers to do what many Englishmen could do much better, and it was perfectly right to employ Mr. Benedict in a work which a native composer could do so well. In our excessive liberality we are somewhat disposed to welcome foreigners with blind admiration, and to scrutinize our countrymen with much severer eyes. It would be better, perhaps, for the encouragement of our native talent did we imitate the narrow-minded conceit of our neighbours *outré* *manche*. But, thank Heaven! of that there is little fear.

MUSICAL NOTES.

A NEW romantic opera is being prepared in the Grand Opera at Paris, entitled "Roland of Ronceval," text and music by Mermet.

FRENCH papers contain the following story respecting the origin of "Masaniello." "The celebrated Bigottini, 'the Marie Taglioni of the first Empire,' made her supposed last appearance for some charitable purpose at the Grand Opera in Paris in 1826. The general enthusiasm was enormous, and, of all spectators, Scribe was the most ardent admirer. He then bethought himself whether he could not write something for her in which her wonderful mimic powers might appear in a still more brilliant light; and thus came to make the heroine of a new libretto entirely dumb, so that all her sentiments and emotions must be expressed solely by her face and movements. Auber surpassed himself in the music."

A TRUE idea of the splendour of ancient operas may be conceived from the *mise en scène* of "Berenice," first brought on the stage at Padua in 1680. It had three choruses. The first consisted of one hundred girls, the second of one hundred soldiers, the third of one hundred knights on horseback. In the triumphal *cortège* were forty huntsmen with horns, sixty trumpeters on foot, six tambours, together with twenty-four other musicians, a great number of flag-bearers, pages, huntsmen, grooms, &c.; two lions with Turkish, and two elephants with Moorish grooms. Berenice's triumphal car was drawn by six white horses; six other carriages, for the generals, were drawn by four horses each; six others, for the booty and the prisoners, by twelve. The transformation-scenes represented: a forest, in which were being hunted boars, deer, and bears;

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an endless plain with triumphal arches; Berenice's rooms; the royal dining-saloon; a picture-gallery; and the royal stables, with a hundred living horses. Towards the end, a great golden globe appeared from the sky, which opened of itself, and threw out eight other blue globes, upon which sat Virtue, Generosity, Fortitude, Heroic Love, Victory, Courage, Honour, and Immortality, floating in mid-air, and singing a chorus!

A new operetta by Offenbach, the genius of the "Bouffes," is making *furor* abroad. It is called "Signor Fagotto," text by Ruitter and Tréfeu. Both words and music are of the drollest, and quite worthy of the renowned "Orpheus," who has now well-nigh made the tour round the world—England excepted.

UHLAND's famous ballad, "The Minstrel's Curse," has been done into a libretto by Gustav von Meyern, and composed by Langert, the composer of the "Maid of Orleans." It is to be brought out during the ensuing winter.

MUNICH is busy with extraordinary preparations for the Musical Festival which is to take place from the 27th to the 29th of this month at the Crystal Palace of that city, and which will be one of the greatest ever held in Germany. There will be present about 1200 male and female singers from the most important towns of the south of Germany, and an orchestra of 100 violins, 40 violas, 60 bassoons and violoncellos, not to mention the extraordinary numbers of wind-instruments. The works to be executed will be chiefly "Israel in Egypt," "The Ode to Cecilia," by Handel and Bach, and some of the *chefs-d'œuvre* of Mozart, Beethoven ("Eroica"), Lachner, &c., the latter being also the conductor. The most celebrated solo-performers, both vocal and instrumental, have been engaged: such as the ladies Diez, Stehle, Von Edelsberg; Messrs. Kindermann, Grill, Heinrich; besides stars of first order, like Mrs. Dustmann from Vienna, Clara Schumann and Joachim from Hanover. The whole programme is a glorification of classical German music, and the third day will not contain a single foreign name, but, exclusively, Bach, Mozart, Beethoven (violin-concerto and Kreutzer-sonata), F. Schubert, Weber, Spöhr, Mendelssohn, and Schumann. The prices of admission will be most astonishingly low: from thirty kreuzers to two florins, or about one to four shillings; and the managers confidently expect all Germany to take part in this classical popular festival.

THE DRAMA.

THREE NEW PIECES, &c.

MR. F. C. BURNAND, whose "Deal Boatman" was brought out with success on Monday evening at Drury Lane, would have done well if he had drawn attention to the fact that his plot is a thinly-veiled reproduction of one of the most beautiful, and probably best-remembered, episodes in Charles Dickens's "David Copperfield." It is the story of Steerforth and Emily; *Jacob Vance*, the Deal Boatman, is Peggotty, and the other characters are easily recognisable. The original has certainly not been equalled, in simple pathos or in delicacy of treatment, in the copy; still, it is clear that Mr. Burnand has written with care and with a subdued pen, even while producing such inferior results. He has constructed a tolerably effective melodrama out of incidents that called for more poetical handling, and which had already had most perfect justice done to them by Mr. Dickens. The necessities of the stage have been all against him, and he has not been able to surmount them greatly. As it stands in Mr. Burnand's "Deal Boatman," the story of "Steerforth and Emily" is this:—Eighteen years before the opening of the piece, Peggotty, otherwise *Jacob Vance* (Mr. G. Belmore), has saved an infant from a West-Indian ship wrecked off the Goodwins; this infant, Emily, or *Mary Vance* (Miss Rose Leclercq), he has brought up as his own child, and she is engaged to be married to a young boatman, Ham, or *Mat Bramber* (Mr. G. Weston). A young gentleman, Steerforth, called *Edmund Leslie* (Mr. F. Charles), has been for some time previously staying at Deal, and has won the heart of old *Vance* by his frank manners and love of the sea; he has also won the heart of *Mary*, and has extorted from her a promise to fly with him on the eve of her projected marriage. On the evening of *Mary's* flight an assemblage of the friendly boatmen and their sweethearts and wives takes place, and in the midst of the dancing and revelry *Mary* is missed, and a note written by her is found, stating that she is gone "for ever." The old boatman, whose

heart has been bound up in her, is overwhelmed with misery, and he curses the false friend who has robbed him of his greatest treasure. In the second act, *Edmund Leslie* is in London at the house of *Sir John Houghton*, his uncle (Mr. Barrett)—Mrs. Steerforth, the mother in the story, being made into an uncle in the play. *Edmund Leslie* is his uncle's heir, and he is called upon to marry a bride of his uncle's selection, *Sir John* having been advertised of the connexion which he had formed at Deal, but which he supposes to be nothing more than a passing indiscretion on his nephew's part. One *George Prescott*, M.A. (Mr. Warde), a distant relation of *Sir John*, and acting in the capacity of tutor to *Edmund Leslie*, has, with a view to eventualities by which he may profit, discovered where *Mary* is living in London and induced her to come to *Sir John's* house, in the belief that *Edmund* has sent for her to his uncle's. In the meantime, *Jacob Vance*, who has been prostrated by the shock of *Mary's* loss, has come to *Sir John's* house in search of her. To the old boatman's plea for reparation, *Sir John* offers money. But the sudden appearance of *Mary*, and the necessary admissions of *Edmund*, bring about explanations on all sides. *Mary* and her lover are really married; and the recognition of a miniature makes *Sir John* know that the child reared by the old Deal boatman is his own, the offspring of a private marriage contracted in one of the West India Islands, whence his wife with their child was proceeding to England at the time she was lost in the wreck. The central figure in the story is the old Deal boatman, and this was played with much genuine feeling by Mr. G. Belmore. The *Mary Vance* of Miss Rose Leclercq was a very graceful and pleasing performance, and Mr. F. Charles appeared to advantage as *Edmund Leslie*. Mrs. Edmund Falconer played the part of an old housekeeper called Mrs. Bridget, the original of the character being the nurse Peggotty of Mr. Dickens's story; the part is not a very good one, but it was played with true artistic propriety, and, in the second half of the piece, became highly entertaining. Mr. Belmore was called before the curtain at the end of the first act and warmly applauded; and a dance, executed with immense spirit by boatmen and their lasses, was encored. At the end of the piece Mr. Burnand was called, and bowed his acknowledgments from the stage. Though not what can be described as a great success, his piece will no doubt serve as a sufficient attraction until the production of "Manfred," which is to be brought out next month under the sole direction of Mr. Phelps.

On the same evening a new farce, by Mr. J. V. Bridgeman, entitled "Where's your Wife?" was produced at the Strand. This piece—founded on a French farce of which we cannot at the moment recall the title—was vociferously applauded; and we must therefore assume that it was entirely to the taste of the audience before whom it was presented. To us it appeared one of the coarsest pieces that have been produced for many years; and we regretted that it should have been acted on a stage on which we have so long been accustomed to see fun and refinement allied. The foundation of the plot is the thoroughly French one of ladies meeting their husbands at a *bal masqué*, receiving their advances, and then turning the tables on them. Mr. Belford and Miss Maria Simpson made great fun out of a number of equivocal situations and allusions, and Mr. Vollaire convulsed the gallery by his minute presentment of the difficulties of sitting or moving in a dress much too small for the wearer. What more need be said of "Where's Your Wife?"

We have to express regret that also in the new melodrama, entitled "The Mystery," brought out at the Surrey on Saturday evening, there is the same tendency to impropriety—carried some steps further. This is going back to a state of things which furnished the opponents of the acted-drama with their strongest weapon of attack. We really think it the duty of managers of minor theatres to consider carefully how they exercise, in this matter, their very important powers. "The Mystery" is a two-act drama, the main idea of which, we imagine, has been taken from Miss Braddon's "Captain of the Vulture." A poor witling, who forms the pivot on which the action of the piece turns, has, possibly, also been suggested by the character of the "Softy" in the same novelist's "Aurora Floyd." Two brothers, one a lieutenant in the navy, the other an outcast ruffian, are so closely alike in face as to be easily mistaken for one another. A murder and robbery is committed by the ruffian under the eyes of the village idiot, who accuses the lieutenant of the crime. The real culprit, however, again appears before the half-

witted peasant, who tracks him to an old mill, and there, in a desperate struggle with him, drowns him in a river; hardly is the death accomplished before the lieutenant hurries to the spot. The explanation of the mystery then naturally follows: *Herbert Clavering*, the lieutenant, and *Horace Copley*, "a wanderer," are twin brothers. The two characters were played with great spirit by Mr. Shepherd, who changed his outward appearance again and again with a rapidity that bewildered the audience. *Will-o'-the-Wisp*, the village idiot, was played by Mr. J. Fernandez with a thorough appreciation of the picturesque side of the character; many of his attitudes were remarkable for their bold gracefulness and originality. His idea of lying about the ground—like one used to idling by the road-side or upon the sunny heath—struck us as extremely praiseworthy. Of the "low-comedy" part of the piece we have already indicated our opinion. The piece was thoroughly successful.

At the close of his last five years' season Mr. Buckstone made some handsome promises as to the improvements which he intended to make in, what American stylists would call, the *auditorium* of the Haymarket by the time he opened it again. Managerial announcements have so often to be taken *cum grano salis* that it is pleasant to have to record that Mr. Buckstone has perfectly redeemed his pledge, and transformed the Haymarket from one of the most uncomfortable into the most comfortable theatre in London after Drury Lane. We are quite sure that he will be handsomely rewarded for his care; and we hope that his example will not be overlooked by his brother-managers. The performances on the opening night were nearly the same as those with which the preceding season was brought to a close—namely, "Charles XII." and the "Bengal Tiger," in both of which pieces Mr. and Mrs. Alfred Wigan played. On Monday next Lady Gifford's comedy of "Finesse" is to be revived; and in the course of next month a new three-act comedy, by Mr. Leicester Buckingham, is to be produced, the principal characters to be sustained by Mr. and Mrs. Charles Matthews.

Six extra performances have been given, during the week, at the Princess's, the "Lady of Lyons" and "Not a Bad Judge" being played each evening. Mr. Walter Montgomery's rendering of *Claude Melnotte* is characterized by clearness and delicacy of conception, refinement of manner, and much real feeling; what it lacks is fervour of expression at times when fervid passion has to be represented. We have before spoken approvingly of his *Lavater*.

A NEW three-act serio-comic drama, by Mr. H. T. Craven, the very successful author of the "Post Boy" and the "Chimney Corner," is in preparation at the Strand, Miss Kate Saville being engaged to play the heroine.

MR. F. C. BURNAND has a "classical extravaganza" underlined at the New Royalty, under the title of "Ixion; or, the Man at the Wheel." How he will handle such an apparently intractable subject we are curious to see.

MISS EDITH HERAUD and Herr Krueger opened the Polygraphic Hall on Monday evening, and gave their series of readings from Shakespeare, illustrative of the passions. We cannot say that we think the experiment likely to prove successful. Miss Heraud is a careful, though uninspired, reader of Shakespeare's poetry; but Herr Krueger has as yet made such small progress towards mastering the pronunciation of English that his readings, or rather recitations, of English dramatic poetry are simply unacceptable. His intentions are occasionally good; but his want of means utterly defeats him, and we cannot hold out any encouragement. If he has acted under advice in his present undertaking, it appears to us that he must have been very ill-advised. The proceeds of the first night's entertainment are to be handed to the "National Shakespeare Committee."

THE following new French pieces are promised for the ensuing winter-season: "L'Ami des Femmes," by Alexander Dumas the younger; "La Maison de Painsage," by Jules Sandeau; and "La Jeunesse," a comedy, by E. Angier.

THE new theatre of the Bouffes Parisiens is rapidly approaching its completion. Floor and ceiling will be of iron and the stairs of stone, the latter being twice as large as in the former house. The lighting will be most brilliant, and the ventilation will be arranged according to the latest improvements. 860 seats will be provided, besides the ample standing-room.

A SHORT while ago the new Théâtre des Variétés was opened at Geneva under the directorship of James Fazy.

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